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ABSTRACT

The historical, administrative, and structural status of education in Nepal is examined in this report. The introduction describes the country's geographic, historic, demographic, and economic background. Section II traces the development of education from religious training in the pre-Christian era through the post-1950 period of rapid educational expansion. Section III outlines the administrative organization at national and local levels. Section IV lists types of financial support and sources of revenue for schools. Sections V and VI describe the educational levels. Primary education is offered in six types of schools: (1) the Buddhist schools, designed primarily for training religious leaders; (2) the formal English schools, which are oriented to the study of Great Britain and India; (3) the Sanskrit schools, whose major emphasis is language; (4) the basic schools, which provide self-sufficiency through craftwork; (5) the vernacular schools; (6) and the national schools, which are similar to the basic schools. At the secondary level are multipurpose schools which emphasize general, cultural, and vocational education. Secondary education is also available in the English, basic, and Sanskrit schools. The status and quality of higher education and teacher training are discussed in sections VII and VIII. Specialized and vocational education described in section IX, covers areas of health, agriculture, home economics, forestry, industry, and engineering. Finally, adult education stresses literacy and includes vocational, civic, and fine and cultural arts education. A bibliography, a list of institutions of higher education, a chart of enrollment in educational programs, and a proposed educational pyramid conclude the document. (KC)

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The DEVELOPMENT of EDUCATION in NEPAL

Studies in
Comparative Education

HUGH B. WOOD
Professor of Education
University of Oregon

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HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
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Foreword

This study of educational development in Nepal is written from the vantage point of one who has personally participated, over an extended period, in the program of outside assistance to that country. In its evaluative aspects, therefore, it reflects the perspectives and experiences of the author and does not necessarily represent the views of the Office of Education or any other Federal Government agency. The study is being published under the Office's research program in comparative education, as part of a continuing effort to produce and disseminate information on foreign educational systems.

ROBERT D. BARENDSEN
Specialist in Comparative Education
for Far Eastern Countries

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Acknowledgments

This study could not have been written without the help of many of my colleagues. Foremost among these is Dr. Trailokya Nath Upraity, who served as my immediate counterpart, first as Undersecretary of Education in Nepal, then Principal of the College of Education, and later as my associate at the University of Oregon where he completed his doctor's degree in 1962. I have leaned heavily on parts of his dissertation and his contributions to published and unpublished documents mentioned above. Finally, he read the draft of this manuscript and made numerous helpful suggestions which have been incorporated into it.

To Dr. Bruno Knall of the Kiel University Institute of World Economics, I owe a deep gratitude, first for providing me with new perspectives on the place of education in economic development in Nepal; and second for his cooperation as colleague in the UNESCO survey in 1962 and as co-author of the survey report, on which I have relied for much data on the modern period.

A third major source, and an historical landmark in education in Nepal, is the report of the National Education Planning Commission, which was led by Sardar Rudra Raj Pandey. It was he and his secretary, Kaisher Bahadur, K.C., and the other members of this commission who pioneered the study and promotion of education in Nepal.

There are many others, some identified in the bibliography, both Nepalese and Americans, who have made major contributions to the development of education in Nepal, and hence to this story, but space does not permit the recital of their names here. To all who have so generously given of their time and interest goes my deepest appreciation.

H. B. W.

Preface

It was my good fortune, in the fall of 1953, to be invited to Nepal to serve as Educational Adviser to the newly created government and to assist in the development of an educational system for that long-sleeping country. My visit lengthened to 6 years as the program unfolded with the help of American technical assistance provided in part through a University of Oregon contract with the International Cooperation Administration. The many challenging experiences of this period were climaxed in 1962 when I was invited to return under a UNESCO grant to assist in a survey of a decade of educational development and an analysis of the role of education in the continuing economic development of Nepal. The story of education in Nepal which follows has been drawn from personal experience and research, from many records and reports heretofore unpublished, and from published documents now available.

HUGH B. WOOD.

NEPAL
ZONES and DEVELOPMENT DISTRICTS
20 0 80 100
20 40 60
SCALE 1 inch = 40 miles
BOUNDARY OF KINGDOM
BOUNDARY OF ZONE
BOUNDARY OF DEV. DIST.
HEADQUARTERS OF DIST.
HEADQUARTERS OF ZONE
MAHAKALI
SETI
KARNALI
BHERI
SWORGADWARI
DHAVALAGIRI
GANDAKI
BAGMATI
Kathmandu
LUMBINI
NARAYANI
JANAKPUR
SAGARMATHA
KOSI
MECHI

I. Introduction

Geographical Setting

Clinging to the southern slopes of the high Himalayas in central Asia lies the little kingdom of Nepal, best known for her famed Ghurkha soldiers and her high mountain peaks.[1] Stretching for about 500 miles in a northwest-southeasterly direction, Nepal provides an 80- to 130-mile wide buffer between India and Tibet.

Nepal comprises about 55,000 square miles. Her northern boundary roughly follows the divide and peaks of the Himalayan range. The eastern and western boundaries are marked by rivers, but the southern boundary fades into the Gangetic plains with few natural features, and almost as few man-made markers.

Although the several mountain ranges in the country tend to run in an east-west direction, this vast watershed is drained by seven major river systems that have cut through the ranges in a general north-south direction, carrying their waters to the Ganges. Several of these rivers cut through the divide into Tibet, thus creating natural trade routes. In fact, these rivers have linked India and Tibet, and have tended to separate the various parts of Nepal; north-south traffic is much easier than east-west traffic. This situation, in turn, has contributed more to the encouragement of loyalties oriented toward India and Tibet than to the development of an indigenous Nepalese nationalism.

Elevations in Nepal vary from about 200 to 29,000 feet. The southern band of 20 to 30 miles, lying south of the Siwalik Range, is part of the Gangetic plains, has a rather even elevation of about 200 feet, and is subtropical in all respects. Much of it is forested, but this Terai area also supplies more than its share of rice. The central and widest band consists of hundreds of valleys, about 2,000 to 5,000

[1] A good source for information on the geography of Nepal is Pradyumna P. Karan, *Nepal: A Physical and Cultural Geography*. Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1960.

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feet in elevation, and of the surrounding ranges and foothills, about 6,000 to 10,000 feet high. Here the climate is temperate; both rice and wheat are staple crops. The northern band of 15 to 20 miles comprises the high Himalayan peaks, 50 of which are over 24,000 feet high, and the tundra area with its arctic climate.

The rainfall varies from 35 to 70 inches per year; 80 percent of it falls during the monsoon period, June to September. The soil in the Terai is generally rich alluvial silt. In the valleys also it often may be silt, but much of the farming in the central band is on terraces that have been cut from the mountain sides, and here the soil may be shallow. It is estimated that only about 15 percent of the tillable land is now under cultivation, but it must be realized that (a) this is probably the best soil; and (b) placing additional land under cultivation would require the clearing of forests and the building of terraces at a tremendous cost of labor.

The intensity of land utilization varies. Primitive forms of irrigation supplement the monsoons in some areas, often making possible three crops per year. Most of the land provides only a single crop, because of the lack of rainfall 9 months of the year or other climatic conditions. Farming methods are primitive and inefficient; it is estimated that rice production is less than one-third as much per acre as in Japan, and wheat perhaps one-seventh as much per acre as in the United States.

The major crop is, of course, rice; wheat and barley are substitute cereals in the colder areas. Potatoes are raised in sufficient quantity for export in some areas; legumes and green vegetables are grown in limited quantities. Fruit is almost nonexistent. Timber, nearly all state owned, has been a valuable resource, but recently the government has taken drastic steps to curtail rash exploitation of the forest reserves, thus limiting income from this source.

For religious reasons, less than half the people eat meat, and those who do can afford little of it. Cattle are never eaten, and the use of cow's milk is limited. Goats and yak provide meat and milk, as well as hides. Poultry and eggs are common food items, but fish is rarely available.

The use of animals as beasts of burden is limited. Elephants are used in lumbering and horses are used occasionally on the trails. Goats and yak serve as work animals, but cattle are not used in this capacity except in the Terai area.

Geological surveys have revealed low-grade deposits of iron ore,

some mica, a little coal, and traces of oil and gas, but there is general agreement among geologists that there are no substantial mineral resources in Nepal.

Historical Background

The early history of Nepal is shrouded in darkness. There are conflicting records of dynasties of 3,000 years ago and references to Nepal in stone inscriptions left by early travelers through the country. But there are comparatively few reliable historical records prior to the British period in India.[2]

One may surmise that 3,000–5,000 years ago there were relatively advanced civilizations in various parts of what is today Nepal. Diaries and letters of traveling missionaries and other visitors confirm this for the Kathmandu Valley as early as the sixth and seventh centuries. But modern history in Nepal begins during the 18th century when Prithwi Narayan Shah and his successors succeeded in uniting the country into a political entity. Shah was king of the state of Gorkha, which lies to the west of the Kathmandu Valley, the largest and most advanced area in the foothills. In 25 years (about 1743–68), Shah conquered the Kathmandu Valley and united the central part of what is today Nepal. His successors continued the expansion until Nepal extended to Kashmir on the west, Bhutan on the east, and the Ganges River on the south.

The British put an end to the expansion by the War of 1814–16 and pushed Nepal's boundaries back to the present locations. For the next 30 years there was a constant internecine struggle for political power, until in 1846, following a bloody court massacre, Jang Bahadur Rana seized the prime-ministership, made the royal family virtually prisoners of the palace, and established a dictatorship. He made his office hereditary, and for 104 years he and his heirs ruled Nepal rigidly, closing the borders of the country. Few Nepalese, other than the Ghurka soldiers, were allowed to leave, and less than 50 foreigners (including diplomats) were allowed to enter during the Rana century of reign.

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[2] Sources for the history of Nepal are numerous. See, for example, Sylvan Levi, *Le Nepal*, Paris: Ernest Leroux, 1905; Francis I. S. Tukor, *Gorkha: The Story of the Gorkhas*, London: Constable, 1957; Girilal Jain, *India Meets China in Nepal*, Bombay: Asia Publishing House, 1962; and also the various writings of D. R. Regmi.

Growing nationalism, freedom movements in India, enlightenment of the Ghurka soldiers who returned to their villages after 20 years of service in India and other parts of the world, and other factors made it possible for King Tribhuvan to overthrow the Ranas and regain political power in 1951.

Then began a decade of royal reign with political party advice. The King, anxious to establish a democratic form of government, encouraged the development of political parties and appointed various advisory bodies and cabinets successively from the several major parties. Popular elections were held in 1959, and the Nepali Congress party took over the reigns of government, but in December, 1960, King Mahendra exercised his constitutional right and seized control of the government to avoid a national crisis. Since then, political parties have been banned, but the King has established two advisory bodies—the National Panchayat, representative of the local panchayats (councils), and the National Guidance Council, representative of various occupational groups.

For many years, about 32 areas have been politically recognizable as principalities or districts. Each has its own governor, and is divided into several sub-areas. But superimposed on this structure today are 75 sub-districts, or "development blocks" (see map), most of which have a political head responsible to the governor of the larger district. Each of these 75 areas has an area panchayat, or council, made up of representatives of the village panchayats; representatives of these 75 panchayats make up the National Panchayat, one of the King's advisory bodies.

Guild-like organization has been encouraged among the farmers, merchants, tradesmen, and professional groups, etc., and representatives of these groups make up the other advisory body to the King, the National Guidance Council.

Demographic Data

Like many other Asian countries, Nepal is experiencing rapid population growth. The population in 1961 was 9.7 million, and was growing at an annual rate of nearly 2 percent.[3] It has doubled since

[3] The data used herein are from the Nepal Census. They have been summarized in the report of the 1962 UNESCO Mission to Nepal: Hugh B. Wood and Bruno Knall, "Educational Planning in Nepal and Its Economic Implications." Paris: UNESCO, 1962. (mimeograph).

1920, and will probably double again within 25 years. Something over a million people, who live mostly in the northern areas, are of Tibetan (Mongolian) stock; a similar number, who live mostly along the Indian border, are of Indian (Aryan) stock, speak Hindi as their mother tongue, and follow Indian customs. The remainder of the population are a blend of these two stocks.

The density of population varies from zero in the Tundra regions to 2,100 per square mile in the Kathmandu Valley. The average for Nepal is 178 per square mile. There are only six towns of over 10,000 inhabitants; 85 percent of the 28,770 settlements have fewer each than 500 residents.

As many as perhaps 30 "tribes" may be identified, often by distinct physical (mostly facial) features. Members of these groups may also be distinguished by the pursuance of a common occupation, by the location of their villages (e.g., the Gurungs on hilltops), by the style of their architecture (e.g., the Newar's carved windows), and in other ways. Originally, these various groups could be located geographically, some district names indicating the "tribe" that inhabited the area. But today, while tribal groups may still be associated with geographic areas, increased mobility, especially to larger centers of population, has modified this pattern.

Sometimes this tribal distinction is supported by the caste system; for example, the Gurungs tend to be farmers, but many of them belong to other castes. The caste system operates in Nepal, but not so clearly or so forcefully as it once did in India. Non-Hindu groups (e.g., the immigrating Newars and the Buddhists) have adopted the system, often creating new castes and new hierarchical positions. But except for marriage and, to a lesser extent, certain other ceremonies, there is general social integration.

About two-thirds of the people profess Hinduism, 100,000 are Muslims, and the remainder profess Buddhism. However, Hinduism and Buddhism have been blended in Nepal as in no other country, and numerous deities are worshipped in common by both sects. A Hindu temple is likely to have a Buddhist *chorten* at its base; a Buddhist temple often encompasses Hindu shrines within its compound. Creeds are not dissimilar, and there is rarely friction between the two groups.

Life expectancy is estimated to be only about 35 years, but this is due partly to a high (perhaps 50 percent) mortality at birth and within the first year. One who survives childhood has good chances of living to the age of 60 or 70. Smallpox, malaria, tuberculosis, cholera,

typhoid, goiter, and leprosy are common, and are frequently fatal. Improvement of sanitation and reduction of disease probably will become major factors in population increase in the decades ahead. In 1953, Nepal had practically no doctors, only about 300 "compounders," and some midwives. In 1962 there were about 130 doctors, and facilities had been established for training nurses, midwives, and other medical aides.

Economic Conditions

Nepal is predominantly an agricultural country; 93 percent of the economically active population is engaged in farming.[4] Arable land and forests, being the only natural resources available, are the basis for the economy, but soil erosion, unregulated deforestation, lack of irrigation and fertilizers, ignorance of efficient farming methods, and a land tenure system that discourages initiative combine to keep the income from agriculture at a level substantially below its real potential.

Only 2 percent of the economically active population is engaged in "manufacturing," mainly in cottage-type industries. There are only nine factories in Nepal, all relatively small.

For centuries Nepal has had an extensive network of trails. Except when the rivers are swollen during the monsoon period these trails constitute readily accessible, but slow, transportation routes for goods carried on the backs of porters. There are a few roads, including one from the Indian border to Kathmandu, but the total mileage is under 350. An east-west road has been proposed and one from Kathmandu to the Tibetan border is under construction, but the rugged mountainous terrain makes road building extremely expensive. Nepal now has about a dozen landing strips that will accommodate DC–3's and smaller planes, and plans to develop a dozen more. Air transportation may prove to be cheaper than road transportation; it has already displaced porter service in some sections of the country.

These factors all combine to explain the extremely low level of income of the Nepalese people. It has been estimated that the annual per capita income was less than $50 in 1961. Since the high concentration of wealth is in the top income brackets, and the average *cash*

[4] For information on economic development in Nepal, see Wood and Small, *op. cit.*, p. 4–24, 110–136.

income is probably less than $12 per year, it is apparent that the large majority of the Nepalese people live on a marginal basis. It is not surprising, therefore, that these people are provided with a very low level of social services. Under current conditions, expenditures for education, health, and welfare must come from the meagre income of the people or from foreign aid. In the long run, an expansion of these services is dependent upon the successful economic development of the country.

When King Tribhuvan regained control of the government in 1951, he immediately asked India and the United States for economic development aid. By 1961 the United States had contributed $32,000,000; India, $20,000,000. Other countries and agencies later offered aid in lesser amounts. By 1961 Russia had contributed $1,500,000; Communist China, $6,400,000; the United Nations, $3,400,000; Ford Foundation, $2,100,000; other countries and agencies, $5,000,000. This money, combined with the regular revenue of the government, was distributed (during 1958–61) as follows: education, about 6 percent; health, 4 percent; transport and communication, 22 percent; agriculture and forestry, 7 percent; industry, 4 percent; power and irrigation, 8 percent; justice, 7 percent; defense, 9 percent; administration, 13 percent; other, 20 percent.

To support growing investments in economic development, Nepal has come to rely increasingly heavily on foreign aid. In 1958–59 the internal contribution to the development budget was 29 percent; in 1959–60, 13 percent; and in 1960–61, only 6 percent. It is perhaps too early to determine whether this large investment in economic development will "pay off" or not, but some of the "returns" thus far in education will be noted later.

II. History of Education in Nepal

Early Developments

It is not surprising that the earliest forms of education in Nepal were associated with the two major religions, Hinduism and Buddhism.[5] By the beginning of the Christian era, there were established systems and institutions for the training of priests and other personnel to propagate these religions. The Buddhist Gompas (monasteries) in some ways approached secular education in the breadth of their curricular offerings and in their effort to enroll one boy from each family, whether he was to become a priest or not. The Hindu system placed greater emphasis on the specific training of priests.

Early Chinese and Tibetan documents indicate that Nepalese scholars were well versed in astronomy, geography, literature, and Sanskrit, and the arts and crafts were well developed. The term *guru*, meaning teacher, appears frequently, and many of the rajas of the various principalities had "spiritual directors" to guide the education as well as spiritual life of the people. Many scholars from China and India migrated to the monasteries of Nepal, and Nepalese royalty began to journey to neighboring lands, thus providing the basis for an exchange of learning.

Paralleling this rather academic type of education was a more practical kind that flourished after the 14th century, when the prevailing caste system was reorganized and strengthened by King Jayathiti Malla. He encouraged greater emphasis on occupational training (since each child was preordained to follow his father's caste occupation), and the apprenticeship system was widely used. Guilds were organized which, among other things, looked after the education of youth.

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[5] For an account of the history of education in Nepal up to 1951, see Trailokya Nath Upraity, "Historical Background of Educational Development in Nepal," in *Financing Elementary Education in Nepal.* Eugene, Oreg.: The American-Nepal Education Foundation, 1962, p. 18–70.

During the 7th, and again in the 18th centuries, Christian missionaries twice attempted to establish schools in the Kathmandu Valley, but these efforts were short-lived and limited in scope.

Prithwi Narayah Shah, as might have been expected, introduced a martial note in education, believing every youth should be trained for war, but after he had conquered the Kathmandu Valley, he laid heavy stress on the industrial and vocational development of the country. He introduced a new concept of state responsibility for education by providing for the education of the children of soldiers lost in battle. However, he and his heirs did not hesitate to appropriate the accumulated wealth of ancient educational institutions to pay the costs of conquest, and both Buddhist and Hindu education often suffered as a result.

A Period of Opposition to Education

The Rana period, 1846–1950, is best described as one of general opposition to education by the ruling group. In an era when western countries were developing and extending their systems of learning, the Ranas were attempting to remove nearly all vestiges of education in Nepal. Although they imported British or Indian pundits to teach their own children according to the English system, they thoroughly opposed education for the masses. In fact, anyone advocating it risked the death penalty or the dungeon.

Jang Bahadur, the first of the Ranas, organized a British-type school for his own children in 1854. His successor, Ranadip, moved the school (known since then as Durbar High School) from the palace to its present site and opened it to other Rana children. He promptly introduced Sanskrit and thus laid the foundation for the later establishment of Sanskrit schools. For the next half century there were no further developments; in fact, various government policies and actions resulted in the serious deterioration of the ancient forms of education.

It was inevitable that some of the Ranas would become enlightened as they pursued their studies, occasionally in India at the university level. One such was Deva Shumshere Rana who succeeded to the prime-ministership in 1901. Having seen the effects of the development of education in India, immediately upon assuming office he provided free vernacular schools in every village with 50 pupils or more,

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to teach the "3 R's" and history and geography. He also established a newspaper and laid plans to free the country's slaves (indentured Nepalis, usually of low caste). It is remarkable that 150 schools were actually opened before he was exiled by his brothers after 113 days in office. The newspaper and the schools were promptly closed, and the concept of universal education was suppressed for 50 years.

During this 50-year period only two events of educational significance occurred. First, Chandra Shumshere Rana became dissatisfied with the universities of India and their influence on the young Rana heirs, so he established Tri-Chandra College in Kathmandu, with attendance limited to the Ranas and children of a few favored courtiers. (It is interesting to note that he gave recognition to the young King Tribhuvan by including part of his name in the title of the college, perhaps suggesting a changing relationship between the palace and the dictators.) The second event occurred in 1932 with the establishment of a board to supervise the standards of the secondary school examination.

Toward the end of the Rana period another enlightened ruler came into power, Padma Shumshere Rana. Of like mind with Deva, he provided for the establishment of schools, the training of teachers, and the publication of textbooks, but, most important, he decreed a constitution which recognized the right of each child to an education. As was the case with Deva, Padma was forced into exile and his reforms were abolished. His successor, and last of the Ranas, Mohan Shumshere, however, could not overcome the rising demands of the people for decency, education, and their fundamental rights, and was overthrown in 1951.

The Modern Period

The impetus given to education by Padma, the initiative of the villagers along the Indian border in establishing their own schools, and the general freedom movement combined to provide a tremendous force for the rapid expansion of education immediately after 1951.[6] Many schools were opened quickly, often without adequate planning,

[6] Two documents provide the basic sources for the record of developments since 1951: Rudra Raj Pandey, Kaishur Bahadur, and Hugh B. Wood, eds., *Education in Nepal: Report of the National Education Planning Commission.* Kathmandu: Bureau of Publications, College of Education, 1956; and Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*

financing, or facilities. Nearly all of them charged tuition and catered to the more favored socioeconomi cclasses.

To prevent complete chaos and provide some guidance for educational development, several organizational steps were taken. These included creation of an educational ministry, strengthening the educational directorate, and appointment of seven school inspectors. A Board of Education was appointed, and in 1954–55, a National Education Planning Commission mapped out a long-range plan for the orderly development of education in Nepal. With the help of American aid, primary schools were expanded, a teacher-training program was established, adult literacy classes were opened, and provision was made for the preparation and printing of textbooks. Colleges were established, both in the Kathmandu Valley and in the hinterlands, and a national university was organized. In 1962, a UNESCO team made a comprehensive survey of a decade of educational progress in Nepal and made recommendations for continued development, but with great emphasis on educational planning.

The description of education in Nepal today, which follows, includes the details of events after 1951, and thus they are not more fully developed here. At this point it is sufficient to note that 1951 marked the beginning of a new dynamic period in the development of education in Nepal—a period which is still continuing.

III. Administration and Supervision of Education

General Organization

Before 1951 there was little need in Nepal for administrative facilities for education. From 1858 to 1951, one of the Rana army generals was designated Director of Education, but the responsibilities relating to this assignment were minimal, and the functions of the office were indifferently performed. Although a sincere effort has been made since 1951 to develop effective administration and supervision of education in Nepal, the lack of experience and training, and the phenomenal growth of education during the period, have made it impossible to close all of the gaps in organization and correct all of the deficiencies in performance. These will be pointed out as the present organization is described. Chart 1 provides an outline of the system.

The Ministry of Education

King Tribhuvan established the Ministry of Education in 1951, when he created his first cabinet after gaining control of the government.[7] The Minister's position is political; he serves at the pleasure of the King. Unfortunately, however, as in some other countries, education has not yet won sufficient recognition to merit a full-time Minister; the various ministers of education have held from one to four other portfolios while attempting to provide leadership for educational development. An attempt has been made recently to

[7] The history and organization of the Ministry of Education are treated in Randhir Subba, Trailokya Nath Upraity, and Hugh B. Wood, "Report on the Ministry of Education," *Education Quarterly*, vol. 2, p. 123–32. A brief description may be found in "Kingdom of Nepal," in Kathryn G. Heath, *Ministries of Education: Their Functions and Organization*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962, p. 443–51.

correct this situation by the appointment of a deputy minister for education.

The Ministry is responsible for all matters pertaining to education. In actual practice, the University Senate has attained a considerable degree of autonomy in the area of higher education, and other ministries direct technical training in their respective fields (e.g., the Health Ministry supervises the training of nurses). But the Minister of Education is responsible for coordinating these activities, providing general educational leadership, establishing broad policies, developing the general program (including the budget), and coordinating educational development with other facets of national economic development through the National Education Planning Council. How well the Minister performs these functions depends in no small measure on his relative interest in education as compared with his other portfolios.

The Secretariat

Immediately under the Ministry is a Secretary of Education, who is appointed by the King.[8] He does not necessarily change with a new Minister, and thus brings more continuity to top-level administration, particularly educational planning. The secretaries since 1951, though not professionally trained, have usually had experience in education and a sincere interest in their responsibilities.

The Secretary is assisted by several under-secretaries whose assignments have varied. Generally, they have been assigned their responsibilities by level of schooling (elementary, secondary, higher education), and occasionally, by the type of school (e.g., Sanskrit schools). For several years, one under-secretary served as director of teacher education and principal of the College of Education. For some time, one under-secretary was assigned to coordinate that part of the program partially supported by foreign aid. This position has also been filled at other times by the Secretary himself or, more recently, by the Director of Public Instruction.

It should be remembered that the Ministry and Secretariat are of recent origin; the Directorate (described below) had been in existence for nearly a century when they were established. As a result, the

[8] The discussion of the Secretariat, the Directorate, the Inspectorate, and local organization, which follows, is based primarily on Pandey, Bahadur, and Wood, *op. cit.*, p. 189–96; and Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 79–84.

relationships, as shown in chart 1, did not really come into full operation until the end of 1960; before that, the Directorate operated somewhat independently of the Ministry and Secretariat. As an example of this, prior to 1959 the jointly supported development program (foreign funds and Nepal government funds) was coordinated by the Secretary's office, while the regular program was under the Directorate; as a result, there were, in effect, two educational programs, administered and supervised by different offices. This situation was corrected when the Director of Public Instruction became the coordinator of the joint program. Today, the several offices operate in close harmony.

The Directorate

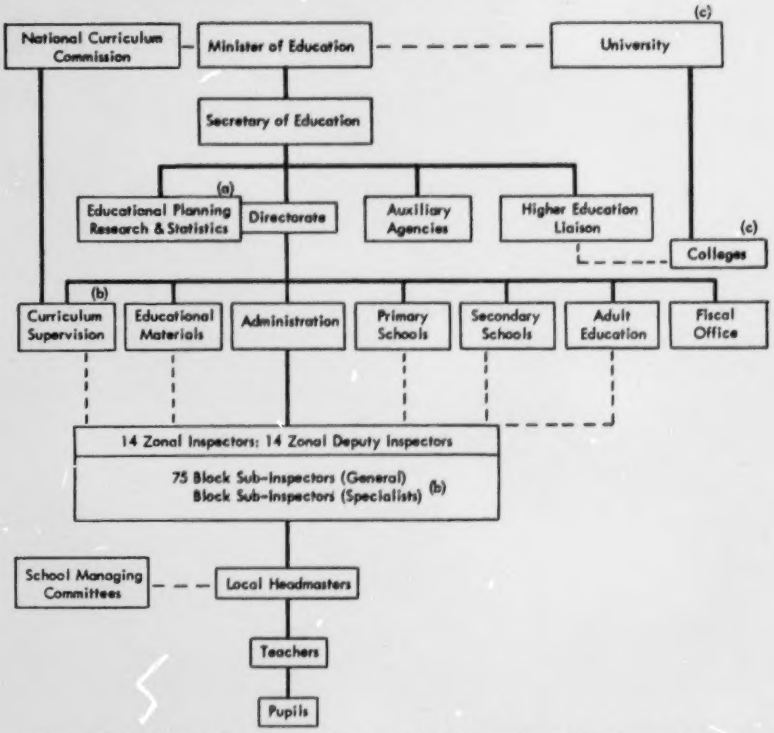
For nearly a century (1858–1951) the Directorate was the only administrative agency for education. There were few schools to administer, but from 1932 on, with the establishment of a "School Leaving Certificate" (S.L.C.) examining board, various functions and responsibilities were added to this office: setting standards, supervision of Tri-Chandra College, keeping records, opening new schools (especially under Padma Shumshere Rana), issuing financial grants to government operated schools (a few were opened gradually during the 1940's), establishing and financing teacher education (a small beginning was made in 1947), publishing materials in Nepali, and similar activities essential to the development of education. The Rana leaders continued to ignore the importance of professionalizing the office, and by 1951 the actual services rendered by the Directorate fell considerably short of those demanded by the "education explosion" about to take place.

The Director of Public Instruction and his several assistant directors today are responsible for the immediate administration and supervision of all elementary and secondary education throughout the country. The Directorate's responsibilities are concerned with the day-to-day operation of the schools, the organization of new schools, the distribution of funds, the preparation and distribution of learning materials, adult education, and other executive aspects of educational administration. Inasmuch as the control of education in Nepal is highly centralized, the functions of this office are similar to those of an American city superintendency, or a highly centralized county superintendency, rather than those of the United States Office of Education or most State departments of education.

Chart I

ORGANIZATION OF ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF EDUCATION IN NEPAL

(with Recommended Modifications)



(NOTE.—Solid lines indicate lines of authority; broken lines indicate coordinating and advisory relationships.)

(a) Change recommended by the UNESCO team in 1962.

(b) Addition recommended by the UNESCO team in 1962.

(c) Higher education is academically autonomous but largely dependent upon the Ministry for financial support.

Source: Wood and Knall, op. cit.

Since 1951, the office of Director has been filled by men with educational experience; some have also had professional training. They operate under a School Code which was prepared in 1953 and has been revised as necessary. Much of their work is carried out through the school inspectors.

The Inspectorate

Immediately responsible to the Directorate is a group of inspectors. They have considerable administrative authority over the local schools (e.g., they can open and close schools, approve or disapprove grants, recommend hiring or dismissal of the headmaster and teachers), but every effort is being made to emphasize their supervisory, or improvement-of-instruction and leadership roles.

In 1953, the country was divided into seven zones for purposes of educational administration, and one inspector was appointed for each zone. In 1960, 36 subinspectors were added. Today, the country has 14 general economic development zones and 75 "blocks" (see frontispiece), with an inspector and deputy inspector for each zone, and one or more subinspectors for each block. Although most of these inspectors are college graduates, both preservice and continuous in-service professional training is provided for them by the College of Education. Their key role is recognized and they are given a major responsibility in the development of education.

The Inspectorate provides the link between the Ministry and the local schools, some of which are nearly 30 days by trail from the capital. Wireless telephones now connect the capital with the zonal headquarters. Thus the block subinspector becomes the actual contact with the schools. He travels on foot, and may require 3 or 4 days to reach some of his schools. It is obvious that these primative travel conditions create not only problems in supervision, but in educating teachers, distributing educational materials, getting monthly pay to teachers, and performing other administrative tasks.

Until now, the inspectors and subinspectors have been primarily concerned with their administrative role; there has been too little time and too few personnel to develop and supervise the actual school program. To correct this and to place greater emphasis on the development of an effective curriculum, sound teaching procedures, and adequate learning materials, the UNESCO team in 1962 strongly recommended the expansion of the Inspectorate to eventually include 75 special supervisors in each of the major subject areas. The local schools are generally too small to justify local supervision or extensive administration; the inspectorate system will need to assist in this function and thus to expand to include curriculum supervision.

Local Organization

The local school, if large enough, has a head teacher or a headmaster. For most schools there is an advisory or administrative body, usually called the School Managing Committee. This may be a self-perpetuating body, or may be appointed by the school staff if the school is privately founded. If the school has been established by the village elders or the panchayat, then the founding group may appoint a managing committee, or serve in that capacity itself. The School Managing Committee rarely has the power of an American school board. It may help to raise money, approve new courses, discuss policies, and in other ways take an interest in the school and give it moral support. It may contact the Inspector to obtain new teachers or financial aid, or to secure government land for a new school site, but it has limited authority and administrative responsibility.

The headmaster or head teacher, often a person with limited training, directs the daily operation of the school: he employs teachers (usually recommended or approved by the inspector); assigns teachers to classes; admits pupils; collects tuition fees if charged; keeps in contact with the managing committee and inspector; opens and oversees village libraries; organizes adult literacy classes; works with parents, and in general keeps the school running.

In the past, and to some extent at the present time, because of the limited number of inspectors, the Village Development Worker (similar to the U.S. County Agent) has assisted in the establishment of schools. In the future, the Panchayat Secretary (a trained representative of the central government) may serve in this role. Local initiative is encouraged but often needs to be "sparked." It is hoped that some administrative functions can be absorbed by the local authorities, but general administration and supervision will probably remain highly centralized.

It has been proposed that the local panchayats be given authority to operate the primary schools at the local level. This would include the power to levy a local "cess" or tax for school support. In three districts (Jhapa, Palpa, and Morang) this authority has been granted on an exprimental basis and special efforts are under way to develop free, universal, compulsory primary education as rapidly as possible.

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Planning for Education

Educational planning in Nepal has been more thorough and effective than in most developing countries, but continuous planning machinery is still inadequate. In 1953, the Minister of Education appointed a National Education Board, but the board never functioned except to recommend the appointment of a National Education Planning Commission.

This Commission of 56 members, widely representative of Nepalese leadership, worked intensively for a year (1954–55) and drafted a long-range, comprehensive plan of education for Nepal.[9] Among its goals were: universal primary education by 1985; availability of adult education to all who desired it by 1965; a national university by 1965; and availability of multi-purpose secondary education on the basis of one school for every 10,000 inhabitants by 1975. Details were spelled out for education at the primary, secondary, university, technical and adult levels; for teacher training, and development of instructional materials; administration and supervision, and financing of education. The report of this Commission has provided the basis for all subsequent educational planning, including the education sectors of the Five-Year Plan (1956–61) [10] and the Three-Year Plan (1962–65) for economic development in Nepal, as well as the plans submitted to UNESCO for participation in the Asian education project. Furthermore, various agencies have evaluated their progress in terms of the report's proposals and recommendations.

However, time and available personnel have not been adequate to implement all of the recommendations of the Commission. One of its pleas was for *continuous* planning of education at the national level. The National Board of Education was suggested as the vehicle, and various national commissions of this board were to be appointed, especially for curriculum development and for educational research. These suggestions have not yet been implemented, and educational planning today tends to be sporadic, sometimes opportunistic, and occasionally nonexistent. Much of the planning and administration of education is carried out on the basis of day-to-day operational decisions by staff officers without the benefit of advising and policy-making bodies.

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[9] Pandey, Bahadur, and Wood, *op. cit.*

[10] *The Five-Year Plan for Education in Nepal.* Kathmandu: Bureau of Publications, College of Education, 1957.

With the establishment in 1954 of a project to develop teacher education and higher education, utilizing American financial aid and the advisory services of University of Oregon contract personnel, a special committee was appointed to serve in a capacity similar to that normally expected of a board of education in the United States. The arrangement was effective and served as a model, but it benefited only a small segment of the total educational program, and was discontinued in 1959 at the close of the Oregon contract.

The UNESCO team in 1962 called attention to the lack of machinery for educational planning and made several recommendations to strengthen the organization and administration of education in this respect. It recommended:

1. the restoration of the national board of education, to be concerned with total educational planning
2. the establishment of a National Curriculum Commission to "mold the general policies underlying the curriculum of the nation's schools"
3. the development of a curriculum supervisory service to implement the work of the National Curriculum Commission
4. the establishment of a division of Educational Planning, Research and Statistics to collect data and conduct research essential to educational planning (see chart 1).[21]

The following year, a Planning and Statistics Section was established in the Department of Education.

Prior to 1963, there had been no comprehensive, systematic, and uniform collection and interpretation of educational statistics in Nepal. The National Educational Planning Commission collected many of the statistics in its report and compiled others from raw data on hand in the Directorate. The UNESCO team utilized raw data available in the Directorate in its report in 1962, and called attention to this lack of organized data so essential to planning. Almost no educational research has been conducted, except in the Bureau of Educational Research at the College of Education.

One of the major difficulties in educational planning arises from the heavy reliance on foreign aid. No matter how comprehensive the planning may be, most aid-giving agencies tend to insist that their contributions be applied to certain projects. Some aid-giving agencies compete for "recognition-type" participation, that is, for projects which are readily identifiable with the donor. The frequent result is imbalance in the program.

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[21] Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, pp. 79–84.

To further complicate this problem, other ministries may be more (or less) successful in obtaining support funds than the Education Ministry. This may cause imbalance in education as related to other sectors of the economy, and in training programs under the various ministries. This situation can be corrected only when aid-giving agencies cooperate with the National Planning Council in promoting a comprehensive plan for total economic development. Balance in overall development as well as within the education sector is essential to maximum productivity.

Finally, imbalance in the use of foreign aid and the lack of planning have resulted in limited coordination of the training programs of the various ministries and the Ministry of Education.

In summary, educational administration, supervision, and planning in Nepal at the present time are somewhat volatile, but the foundations for their development have been laid. Tremendous gains have taken place since 1951 and sincere efforts are being made to close the gaps and perfect the functioning of these aspects of education in Nepal.

IV. Financing Education

Types of Support

The early indigenous educational institutions in Nepal were supported by the religious groups that sponsored them. They were generally free of tuition and other charges, but the students often were expected to perform manual labor and participate in communal life to help support the institutions.

The Rana schools, both the English and later the Sanskrit, were state supported, although there was little distinction between personal and state funds among the Rana rulers, and were generally free to those who were permitted to attend. Even Tri-Chandra College had no tuition charges.

Towards the end of the Rana era, some of the people of the Terai area, along the Indian border, brought in teachers from India and, in defiance of the Ranas, opened schools for their children. The teachers were paid mostly in kind—rice, clothing, et cetera—which they collected every Saturday from their patrons (hence, the schools were called "Saturday Schools"). Immediately after the overthrow of the Ranas, scores of schools were opened by educated individuals and by formal and informal groups. The new government, to encourage such groups, soon began making annual grants of Rs. 300 ($42) for primary schools, regardless of size, and Rs. 600 for high schools.[12] Much of the state aid to education today is still given on this basis rather than on a "per-pupil" basis. As these funds were inadequate, additional support came from small tuition fees, local gifts of cash, land, labor, and goods and free services offered by teachers.

Today, there are three types of financial support for schools in Nepal.[13] First, the government continues to fully finance the earlier

[12] The term "high school" is used in Nepal to designate a school that has both primary and secondary grades.

[13] Basic overall sources for information concerning the contemporary status of educational finance in Nepal are Upraity, *op. cit.*, and Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*

free state-supported schools, has opened a few additional ones, and is contemplating the establishment of at least one free government high school in each of the 75 development blocks.

Second, most of the schools are partially supported by the government through grants-in-aid. These schools charge small tuition fees, the maximums being set by the government as a condition for receiving financial aid. The maximum for high school is Rs. 6 per month (4 days' pay for a janitor, 1½ days' pay for a trail porter). For the first two grades, the maximum is Rs. 0.5 per month. Most of these schools require additional local support.

Third, many new schools are opened through private initiative in hope of government aid after 2 or 3 years of successful operation. These schools sometimes hold their tuition charges to the government maximum; sometimes they are substantially higher. Obviously, the schools rely heavily on private support.

There are also a few missionary schools, mostly in the Kathmandu Valley, that intend to remain private in financial support. These charge as much as Rs. 30 per month or more for tuition, but usually provide a few scholarships for children from economically disadvantaged homes.

The various colleges also fall into these three categories described above. The College of Education and Tri-Chandra College receive full support from the government. The university receives substantial state support, but charges tuition and has received private funds for both operating and capital expenditures. Most of the colleges are on a grant-in-aid basis or are privately supported.

Sources of Revenue

Local vs. Central Financing

Traditionally, financing of all government functions has been highly centralized. Under the Ranas, all revenue was channeled to Kathmandu and was then returned to the districts only as needed (and this need was meagerly defined). With extremely limited resources, a subsistence level of living, centralized administration, and a tradition of heavy reliance on the central government for action, it is not surprising that villages have assumed that education would be supported from Kathmandu.

To introduce a new concept, one of "cooperative financing," provision was made for partial local support of the primary schools which were established under joint Nepal-American aid. For the first year, two-thirds of the support was to come from the central government, one-third from the community; the second year the ratio was to be 60–40; then 50–50, 40–60, 30–70. So much difficulty was experienced in getting *any* local support that the plan was abandoned.

However, current plans for educational development provide for increasing community support through taxation. State and foreign aid funds are wholly inadequate for financing education on the scale of expansion planned. The present tax structure is feudal and archaic; first steps have been taken to revise it. When it has been properly overhauled, then local government sources of revenue for education can be utilized. General improvement in economic conditions will also help.

The UNESCO team recommended that the central government provide minimum educational facilities throughout the country—primary, secondary, technical, adult, and higher schools. Facilities for additional children, if there was sufficient demand, could then be financed entirely locally or with "incentive" aid from the central government.

Central Government Resources

The major internal source of revenue for the central government traditionally has been the land, but since 1957 the income from customs and excise duties has exceeded land revenue. Increasing amounts are being realized from the forests, and trade and other domestic activities account for the remainder of revenue. In 1962, the income was divided as follows: from customs and excise, 45 percent; land revenue, 24 percent; forests, 15 percent; trade, 6 percent; other, 10 percent. There is no substantial income from manufacturing or the exploitation of other natural resources.[14]

Since 1952, the major funds for economic development have come from foreign aid; in 1961 only 6 percent came from the Nepal government. The ratio of development expenditures to the regular operating budget has risen sharply since 1959. From 1956 to 1959, the development budget was about 40 percent of the total budget; since then it has been nearly 60 percent.[15]

[14] Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 19.
[15] *Ibid.*, p. 122.

None of the internal revenue is "earmarked" for any specific purpose; all activities must compete for operating funds. Foreign aid development money is usually granted for specific projects, and rarely can be transferred if some projects do not materialize and others move ahead more rapidly than expected. Education must compete with other activities for development money; as suggested previously, it is handicapped by the fact that the returns on the investment in general education are usually delayed for a generation and are not as obvious as those for factories, roads, and other "ready-return" investments.

Local Resources

Under recent incentive measures, the local district can withhold up to 10 percent of the land revenue for local developmental purposes, including new schools, and government land is often made available for school sites. But there is no other local government revenue. Any additional local support for education must come from private sources.

Costs of Education

Nepal is at present spending less than 0.3 percent of its national income on education, which is extremely low, even for underdeveloped countries; India, for example, spends 1.5 percent. About 6 percent of the total government expenditures are directed to education, as compared with 15 percent in the United States, but about 10 percent of the development funds have been allocated to education since 1956. During the first Five-Year Plan (1956–61) education was the only sector to utilize its entire development budget; by transfers to the education funds, 112 percent of the original budget was spent on educational development (other sectors used about 50 percent of their budgets). This suggests both achievement and good planning. But it may readily be seen that both the ratio of education expenditure to gross national product (GNP) and the total amount of funds devoted to education must increase sharply if there is to be continued progress in education.[16]

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 100–110.

Unit Costs

The lack of statistical data makes it difficult to determine unit costs with any high degree of accuracy. In 1954, the National Education Planning Commission, in estimating the future costs of education, used the following annual unit costs: primary schooling, Rs. 40 per pupil;[17] secondary, Rs. 150; university, Rs. 400; teacher training, Rs. 500; textbooks, Rs. 2 each.[18]

The first Five-Year Plan used an annual unit cost of Rs. 30 for primary education; the U.S. aid program used Rs. 37 in a report issued in 1957. The UNESCO Karachi Plan allowed Rs. 150 in calculating the annual cost of primary education to 1980, but later revised its estimates downward.[19] The Secretary of Education, Kulashekar Sharma, in reporting to the UNESCO Tokyo conference in 1962, used $8 or Rs. 56 in estimating the annual costs of primary education to 1960; and $125 or Rs. 875 as the projected unit cost for normal school training. Upraity made perhaps the most careful estimates of unit costs for primary education and found annual *government* costs from 1951–61 to fall between Rs. 14 and Rs. 35, for an average of Rs. 24. In his estimates of future costs, he used Rs. 30.[20]

In 1962, the UNESCO team had the benefit of additional data and experience and arrived at the following estimates, which include both government and local costs: primary education, per pupil, annually, Rs. 30; teacher education (normal school), Rs. 800; secondary education, Rs. 100; teacher education (college), Rs. 900; university, Rs. 900; adult literacy, Rs. 10; textbooks, each, Rs. 2; administration, per pupil, Rs. 4.[21] These estimates were based on averages of government expenditures from 1957–61 and careful estimates of local costs; they are probably the most accurate available. However, the UNESCO team used them as a basis for projection for only 3 years, to 1965. It is readily assumed that unit costs will rise still more after 1965, due to probable inflation and marked increase in the quality of service.

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[17] Actual costs in 1954 were estimated to be Rs. 23; Rs. 40 was used to allow for increasing costs. Other estimates were also above the estimated costs in 1954. One rupee (Rs. 1) equals 14¢ U.S.

[18] Pandey, Bahadur, and Wood, *op. cit.*, p. 201.

[19] *A Working Plan for the Provision of Universal, Compulsory, and Free Primary Education in Nepal.* Paris: UNESCO, 1961, p. 14.

[20] Upraity, *op. cit.*, p. 137.

[21] Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 105.

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Total Costs

The total costs of education depend, of course, upon the extent of education. The total Nepalese government expenditures on education in 1951 have been estimated at Rs. 650,000; in 1954, Rs. 2,735,000; in 1961, Rs. 10,825,000.[22] This compares with total enrollments of 10,455 in 1951, 73,750 in 1954, and 221,360 in 1961.

By 1961, half of the education funds were being devoted to primary education, 10 percent to secondary schools, 30 percent to higher education, and the remainder to teacher education, administration and other costs. Nearly 16 percent of the children of primary school age were in school; 2 percent of the secondary age group were enrolled; and 0.7 percent of the college age group were attending institutions of higher learning.[23]

The UNESCO team recommended continuation of the present rate of growth in primary education, sharp acceleration in secondary education, actual reduction of enrollment in higher education, and considerable increases in adult education, technical training, and supervisory expenditures. To finance these recommendations, it suggested total government expenditures for 1963–65 of Rs. 15,055,000, Rs. 17,825,000, and Rs. 20,015,000 respectively, to be augmented by local expenditures of Rs. 4,080,000, Rs. 6,365,000, and Rs. 8,355,000 respectively.[24] These were considered to be modest but minimal increases, within Nepal's resources, but essential to continued educational development. The UNESCO team made no cost estimates beyond 1965.

UNESCO's Karachi Plan assumes universal primary education in all Asian countries by 1980. Under this plan, primary education in Nepal is expected to cost Rs. 31,518,000 in 1965, and Rs. 293,674,000 in 1980.[25] As indicated above, these estimates and their downward revisions are probably much too high. Sharma estimated the costs of primary education, including administration and teacher education, to be Rs. 20,160,000 for 1965, and Rs. 111,622,000 for 1980.[26] Upraity reviewed the costs of several proposals for primary education, but made no estimates of his own.

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[22] *Ibid.*, p. 27.
[23] *Ibid.*
[24] *Ibid.*, p. 107.
[25] *A Working Plan for the Provision of Universal, Compulsory, and Free Primary Education in Nepal*, p. 21.
[26] [Kulashekar Sharma], *Primary Education in Nepal*. Kathmandu: Ministry of Education, His Majesty's Government, 1962. p. 7.

Administration of Educational Finance

Financial planning is a function of the Director of Public Instruction, the Secretary of Education, and the Ministry. Until 1956, planning was on a year-to-year basis, but with the inauguration of general economic planning, it has been possible to project budgets for 3 to 5 years. As indicated previously, there is a shortage of funds, and education is on a competitive basis with other sectors of the economy. However, within the total education budget, allocations to the various sectors of education are left to the education officials, who have generally followed the recommendations of the National Education Planning Commission. Although prior to 1959 the general budget was completed too late each year to use as a basis for planning, there has been an education budget (based sometimes on "guesses") since 1954. This now serves as an effective device for planning and administering educational finance.

Since 1954, there have been two separate offices, one for the regular budget and one for the development budget. The UNESCO team in 1962 recommended their fusion, and the modernization of accounting procedures.

V. Primary Education

Types of Schools

Primary education in Nepal today reflects several vestiges of the unique historical development of education in that country.[27] For the most part, the several types of primary education that exist today are borrowed from Nepal's neighbors. None of the forms are truly or completely indigenous, and only the curriculum suggested by the National Education Planning Commission has been really designed to fit the needs of all Nepalese boys and girls. As a result of various historical forces and events, Nepal has had six distinct types of primary education.

The Gompas

The oldest form of primary education is what remains of the Buddhist Gompa. It is estimated that from 25 to 50 such schools still exist along the northern borders of Nepal. An effort is made to enroll at least one boy from each family in these predominantly Buddhist villages, and to keep him in school for at least 2 or 3 years. Most of these schools provide facilities for room and board, and life in them is somewhat monastic. The majority of these institutions provide continued training for those who wish to become monks. They are more or less ungraded in organization.[28]

The curriculum is designed primarily for training religious leaders, or prayer-readers, and to a lesser extent for the practical needs of everyday life. Much of the time is devoted to the reading of Buddhist

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[27] Basic sources for material on primary education in Nepal are Pandey, Bahadur, and Wood, *op. cit.*, Upraity, *op. cit.*, and Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*

[28] For a brief description of the daily routine, see Pandey, Bahadur and Wood, *op. cit.*, pp. 14–15.

texts, but vocal music and painting are also stressed—music to improve the reading of prayers, and painting to enhance manuscript copying.

These schools are administered, financed, and taught by various orders of the Buddhist faith. The central and local governments make no effort to supervise them. Although there are no statistics pertaining to the schools, it is generally believed that they have decreased markedly in number and enrollment since their origin centuries ago. A few no doubt will continue to survive to serve the needs of training for religious leadership, but their importance as a form of primary education has largely disappeared.

English Schools

Historically, the second type of formalized primary education in Nepal is a replica of the British schools which were established in India. Jang Bahadur was fascinated by the British and had seen their achievements both in Great Britain and in India. In establishing Durbar High School (which included primary grades) in 1854, he instituted a system which falls considerably short of meeting the real needs of Nepalese children. Although this system provided English-speaking government workers to serve the British in India for more than a century, the need for this service did not exist in Nepal. Nevertheless, this system was used exclusively by the Ranas and took root deeper than any other during their reign. The result is that until about 1958, half to two-thirds of the primary schools were of this type. There are about 1,000 English primary schools in Nepal today. Although they are still increasing in number, other types are increasing more rapidly.

The curriculum of the English school includes languages, arithmetic, history, geography, and civics, but much of the time is devoted to learning English, which is taught from the first year of schooling and is the medium of instruction. Methods are usually very formal; there is heavy emphasis on drill, memorizing, and lecturing. Much of the curriculum is oriented toward India and Great Britain. The pupils study Indian and British history, and until recently there was no textbook for Nepali history. Problems in arithmetic are based upon data from Western culture; stories read in language classes come from English legend and literature. This program may lead to a course in the secondary school preparing students for the Cambridge Overseas examination. The conventional organization has been 4 or

5 years for the primary grades, a middle school of 2 or 3 years, and a higher school of 3 years.

The English system is now encouraged by the demand for English-speaking government servants, the requirement of English in all high schools and colleges, and the salary premium for English competency. But since less than one-fifth of the total primary school children (and considerably fewer from the villages) go on to the secondary school, the heavy emphasis on this type of school seems hardly justified.

Sanskrit Schools

Sanskrit was taught, largely on an informal basis, long before the encouragement given to it by Ranodip Shumshere Rana in the 1860's. Many of the early Hindu manuscripts were written in Sanskrit, and there was a continuing demand for scholars to read and interpret and to copy them. Ranodip introduced Sanskrit into Durbar School and thus encouraged the later development of formal Sanskrit schools. The National Education Planning Commission estimated that there were 233 Sanskrit schools in 1954; Upraity estimated that there were 191 in 1959 (see table 1).

The government has given these schools considerable recognition by providing at least temporarily for separate supervision, a Directorate Assistant in charge of them, and special financial grants. Their academic nature and the fact that they are not intended to provide "common" education are recognized, but the place of the Sanskrit scholars in Nepalese life is well established and this form of education will undoubtedly continue, though with diminishing importance.

The curriculum emphasizes the Sanskrit language. Most of the time is devoted to reading and memorizing early religious manuscripts. Nepali and some arithmetic are taught, and recently some history has been introduced. The classes are not rigidly graded; the pupil is expected to progress through the Sanskrit secondary school and college if he is able.

Basic Schools

Basic Education, the first indigenous form of education in India in more than two centuries, was Gandhi's application of his concept of socialism and Dewey's philosophy of education. It was designed for

the villages of India, emphasized self-sufficiency, and was closely associated with the freedom movement.

To curry favor with the new Indian government in 1947, and to present a "modern" facade, the Ranas established a teacher-training institution for Basic Education and about 20 Basic Schools, all in the Kathmandu Valley. They knew perfectly well that this form of education, and the philosophy upon which it was based, was antithetical to their political survival, but the program was intended to be carefully controlled and limited. However, the Ranas could not foresee that their concern was unnecessary. Basic Education has not become popular in Nepal (there were only 41 schools in 1959), largely because it is designed for the "common" people and has a vocational emphasis. It does not fit the image of education as "scholarly learning" and thus lacks appeal for those who seek to be lifted out of their village into a government job (and hence economic security) rather than to improve their lot in the village.

The core of the curriculum of Basic Education is craftwork designed to provide self-sufficiency: spinning, weaving, woodworking, and agriculture. With these, one can make his own clothing, build his own house (woodworking includes work with bamboo and thatch and, in Nepal, brickmaking), and grow his own food. The basic communication skills are developed in relation to the crafts. Social studies and physical education are included, and practical experience is provided in various village improvement projects. Most schools aim at self-sufficiency by selling or consuming their own products; all of them own or rent land for agricultural pursuits. Many of these schools provide dormitory facilities for boarding pupils. All begin their programs at day-break or earlier, usually with an hour of prayer while spinning, and end at dusk.

Basic Education carried into the secondary level in Nepal and into the college level in India. The elementary school is usually seven or eight grades, leaving 2 to 4 years for the secondary school. By 1962, all Basic Education schools in Nepal had been ordered by the Department of Education to become schools of the vernacular type described below.

Vernacular Schools

Toward the end of the Rana period, the intense desire for education brought about various subterfuges and makeshift arrangements for

learning. Tutoring could be carried on without attracting too much attention, and this gradually led to tutoring on a "class" basis as well as individual work. It was only natural that the first training should be in the "3 R's," and that it should be conducted in the vernacular or mother tongue. Thus the seeds were sown for a type of school that provided general literacy and common learning. Because of the nebulous and varied character of the program of these vernacular schools, the National Education Planning Commission did not collect data on them in 1954, although there were probably several hundred by that time, but Upraity subsequently suggested that by 1959, about 30 percent of the primary schools in Nepal fell into this category.[29]

After 1951, these schools became more formalized and spread rapidly. The curriculum became more stabilized and included the basic communication skills, some social studies, and sports. Some of the schools tend to imitate the curriculum of the English school, but omit English language study; others lean heavily on the Basic Education concept, minus the emphasis on crafts. In 1955, the government made Nepali the official medium for all schools, and it is now the medium of instruction in most schools, except for some along the Indian border which teach in Hindi, the common language in that area.

National Schools

The National Education Planning Commission appointed a subcommittee to design a curriculum that would be truly responsive to the needs of children in Nepal. After a year of study and investigation, this committee recommended a program built around three basic functions of life: Feeding Ourselves, Housing Ourselves, and Clothing Ourselves. These topics provided the core around which the communication skills, social studies, science, aesthetic arts (fine arts, music, folk dancing, literature), personal development (physical training, and moral and spiritual training), and the crafts essential to performing these functions were organized. This curriculum is common for the five primary grades, but becomes diversified at the secondary level to provide for the varying needs of the village and city dweller, the man of the Terai and the man of the hills, and for the personal interests of the individual. It draws heavily from the concepts of Basic Education, from some of the practices of the Vernacular Schools, and,

[29] Upraity, *op. cit.*, p. 76.

to a lesser extent, from some of the content of the English schools. It was first and foremost a program to meet the indigenous needs of Nepalese children.

The Commission adopted the subcommittee's proposal, and in 1956 it was adopted by the government. All new schools were to use this curriculum; existing schools were to adapt to it as soon as feasible. All teachers were to be familiarized with the program, and demonstration schools were to be established.

The success of this program of action has been moderate. Many new schools have attempted to follow its curriculum, and teachers have been trained to use it. But few of the former schools have been converted, and the program suffers from a lack of printed courses of study and teachers' guides to implement and explain the curriculum as necessary. This weakness is now being overcome by the work of a body established in 1960, with American assistance, for the purpose of preparing, publishing, and distributing educational materials. By the middle of 1964 this new Educational Materials Organization in the Ministry of Education had prepared more than a dozen new subject textbooks for primary grades with accompanying teacher's guides, and several of the new texts had already been printed. The pace of this work will be stepped up sharply with the completion of the Educational Materials Center now under construction near Kathmandu.

In the meantime, the number of National Schools is gradually increasing. The only other form of primary education that appears to be increasing rapidly is the Vernacular School, and there are many similarities between the two types. By 1959, about one-fourth of the primary schools were classified as National Schools. Today, the Ministry of Education classifies Vernacular and National Schools in a single category.

Extent of Primary Education

Statistical analysis of the growth of education in Nepal has been handicapped by the lack of provision for the systematic collection of data and by deliberate concealment of developments during the Rana period. However, fairly reliable estimates of enrollment and related data have been made by various agencies and the collection of school data is becoming more systematized.

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Estimates of the number of primary schools in 1951 vary from about 100 to 310.[30] The figure depends in part, on how a "school" is defined (e.g., is a tutoring class a school?) and on whether one counts as schools those which were operating clandestinely. Also, one must decide whether to consider the primary divisions (grades 1–5) of the secondary schools (grades 1–10) to be primary schools. If they are so considered, then Upraity's figure of 310 schools must be revised upward to 321 to include the 11 secondary schools which he found to have lower grades. By using the known 1954 figure for the average number of students in a primary school, and adjusting the total to include the pupils of grades 1–5 of the secondary schools, according to a formula developed by the UNESCO team,[31] it is possible to estimate that there were about 9,000 primary school pupils in 1951.

The National Education Planning Commission provided the first comprehensive enrollment estimates, based on data for 1954. In 1962, the UNESCO team made a most exhaustive study and analysis of data, with estimates for 1961. Data for 1963 were provided by a newly established Planning and Statistics Section in the Department of Education. The number of schools for 1963 was presumably determined by actual count, but the enrollment data were estimates derived by multiplying the number of schools by an assumed uniform school size of 40 pupils. Table 1 summarizes the various estimates thus made available.

Although it is becoming more difficult to identify schools by type (it will be noted in table 1 that the sources for 1961 and 1963 data did not attempt this breakdown), Upraity in 1959 classified the 2,189 primary schools then existing as follows: Sanskit, 125; English, 1324; Vernacular, 666; Basic, 74.[32] He presumably included the National Schools in the vernacular category. He also determined the basis of support for these schools in 1959: those completely financed by government, 11.5 percent; schools receiving partial government support, 15.3 percent; schools supported from joint government-foreign aid funds, 22.3 percent; privately supported schools, 50.9 percent.

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[30] *Ibid.*, p. 61 gives the 310 figure.

[31] Three levels of schools have developed in Nepal: a primary school of grades 1–5, a "middle" school of grades 1–7, and a "high" school of grades 1–10. Prior to the UNESCO survey in 1962, *all* pupils in middle and high schools had been counted as part of the secondary school enrollment. The UNESCO team, by assuming a "straight-line" dropout rate from grades 1 to 10, established a formula for estimating the enrollment by grade levels for 1961, and for the first time provided enrollment estimates for primary education which included *all* pupils in grades 1–5, and for secondary education which included *only* pupils in grades 6–10. It counted all units of grades 1–5 as primary schools, whether separate or part of a middle or secondary school. See Wood and Knall, op. cit., p. vii–viii for details.

[32] Upraity, *op. cit.*, p. 75.

Table 1.—Primary schools in Nepal [1]

Type of school	1951 Number of—		1954 Number of—		1961 Number of—		1963 Number of—	
	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils
Gompas	(No data; estimated from 25 to 50 schools)							
Sanskrit	321	8,970	243	6,243	4,001	182,533	4,913	191,620
English			1,028	49,296				
Vernacular			no data					
Basic	0	0	49	4,975				
National	0	0	0	0				
Total	**321**	**8,970**	**1,320**	**57,514**	**4,001**	**182,533**	**4,913**	**191,620**
Percent of age-group (6–10) enrolled [2]		0.9		5.6		15.8		15.9

[1] The sources for the basic data used to compile this table are: for 1951, Upraity, *op. cit.*, p. 61; for 1954, Pandey, Bahadur, and Wood, *op. cit.*, p. 36; for 1961, Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, pp. 27–28; for 1963, an unpublished report (Publication S/2) of the Planning and Statistics Section of the Department of Education, dated Aug. 12, 1963. The basic data for 1951, 1954, and 1961 have been adjusted to include enrollment in the primary divisions of the secondary schools. The 1963 data include the primary pupils from the secondary schools, but the enrollment data are admittedly estimates, and may be somewhat low; according to the projection of 1954–61 trends given in Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 32, there would have been about 230,000 primary pupils in 1963.

It should be noted that the primary divisions of the secondary schools have been counted as separate primary schools although they are not separately administered. Thus these secondary schools have, in effect, been counted twice: here, and again in table 2.

[2] The sizes of the population age-groups from which these percentages were derived was established by interpolations from the 1961 Census. For details, see Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. v–vi.

In 1961, the UNESCO team determined the primary-age (6–10 years) population, for use in projecting proposed enrollment goals and costs. With these data, the team was able to show that only 0.9 percent of the primary-age group were in school in 1951, that 5.6 percent were enrolled in 1954, and that by 1961, the enrollment had climbed to 15.8 percent, a remarkable achievement for so short a time. Taking into account the present population growth rate, the team recommended efforts to double the 1961 enrollment by 1967, and to raise it to 489,000 pupils, or 35.0 percent of the age group, by 1970.[33]

Upraity also studied the grade distribution of pupils. Especially during a period when many new schools are opening, usually a grade at a time, beginning with the first grade, it is to be expected that enrollments will be higher in the beginning grades. He found the following distribution of pupils in 1959:

Grade:	Percent	Grade:	Percent
I	38. 1	VI	4. 9
II	19. 5	VII	3. 5
III	14. 3	VIII	3. 3
IV	8. 6	IX	2. 6
V	5. 7	X	2. 4

Although one cannot determine the dropout rate from these data (because they are not available for successive years), it is clear that there was in 1959 a heavy attrition in the primary school, in accordance with a pattern common in developing countries.

The same investigator also found that nearly 80 percent of the primary schools in a sample survey were one- or two-teacher schools. This again reflects the fact that many new schools were opening—many of those he studied in 1959 had been open for only a year or two. Most of these schools planned to expand to five-teacher (five-grade) schools within 3 or 4 years. Because most of the villages of Nepal are under 500 population, most of the primary schools will remain small, however.

Upraity found a wide range in the teacher-pupil ratio in these schools—from 1:10 to over 1:100; about 60 percent of them fell within a 1:21–1:40 range, another 25 percent within a 1:41–1:60 range. However, the UNESCO team, utilizing data from the entire country, found an average ratio of only 1:25 for primary schools, and suggested reducing the number of classrooms with very low ratios, as an economy measure to bring the national average to about 1:30. The team also recommended 1:40 as a maximum ratio.

[33] Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

Nearly all of the primary schools are co-educational but in some no girls have as yet enrolled. The UNESCO team reported an increase from 4.1 percent in 1954 to 37 percent in 1961 in the percentage of girls in the total primary school enrollment. However, in Upraity's sample (1959), only 16 percent were girls. Nevertheless, the number enrolled is increasing as the new status of women develops, and the right of girls to an education is now generally accepted.

Primary schools are usually non-residential, but residential secondary schools usually include the primary grades. In general, residential schools serve only the more economically favored.

Buildings and learning aids are quite inadequate. Many schools meet in makeshift facilities, or under a tree. In the Terai area, a suitable building is made of bamboo and thatch; in the hilly area, brick or stone are usually used, but there is little glass for windows. None of the buildings are heated. In the tropical Terai, the long 3-month vacation comes in the excessive heat of the summer, while farther north the schools are closed during the cold winter months. There is a dearth of textbooks and even simple writing tools. The teacher must indeed rely heavily on his ingenuity with respect to teaching and learning aids.

Despite many problems, primary education in Nepal is expanding rapidly. During this expansion period it will suffer from many inadequacies, but it will result in widespread functional literacy and provide a basis from which some pupils can proceed to further education. It appears now that primary education will comprise 5 years of general education, more or less adapted to the needs of Nepal's predominantly rural children. Various projections suggest that it will become universal, free, and compulsory between 1980 and 1990.

VI. Secondary Education

Types of Schools

Secondary education in Nepal, as commonly conceived, is of relatively recent origin.[34] Although the early religious schools provided training through the adolescent years, it was on an ungraded basis, a continuous program without organization or other distinctions between primary, secondary, and higher education.

English-Type Schools

The first secondary school, as such, was established by Jang Bahadur a few years after 1854. It is understood that the English-type school, which he adapted from India, at that time offered training first at the primary level and then, when needed a few years later, at the secondary level. Prior to this time, a few Nepalese students from the aristocratic class had been sent to India for study. But secondary education was carefully restricted by the Rana dictators to their own children and to the Kathmandu Valley. By 1951, there were only seven English secondary schools in all of Nepal, and none outside the central valley, but the number had grown to 146 by 1961, and these were distributed throughout the country.

The English-type secondary school was patterned after British education, and it was kept that way by the use of the same final examinations (Cambridge) in India and Nepal as in Great Britain. Indian history was added to the curriculum, but Nepalese history was not included until the late 1950's, because of the lack of a textbook. Prior

[34] The discussion of secondary education is based mainly on Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, Pandey, Bahadur, and Wood, *op. cit.*, and *Courses of Study for the School Leaving Certificate.* Kathmandu: The Controller of Examinations, Department of Education, Government of Nepal, 1957.

to 1947, Hindi, Nepali, and other local languages were studied only to a limited extent—mostly grammar and very little literature—partly because of the lack of books. The major emphasis was on English, which was the medium of instruction. Today, the local languages receive more attention; as much as 40 percent of the curriculum time may be devoted to language study, and most pupils study four languages: Nepali, Hindi, English, and Persian or Sanskrit (the base language of most major Indian languages).

Very little attention was given to science prior to the mid-fifties. The establishment of a science college in 1956 gave impetus to the development of precollege science courses in the secondary schools. Mathematics, history (English, Indian, and now Nepali), and geography, recently introduced, round out the curriculum. The girls' secondary schools also offer domestic science as part of the regular curriculum, and most schools offer physical training and sports, forensics, and music as extracurricular activities.

Teaching methods are confined largely to lecturing and rote recitation, often *en masse*. There is a single objective: to pass the final School Leaving Certificate (S.L.C.) examination at the end of the 10th grade. Professional leadership, especially as developing in the College of Education, is now attempting to promote a more practical outlook towards secondary education and some recognition of individual differences among students.

A school designated as a "secondary school" generally includes grades 1 through 10. Some schools include only grades 1 through 7 and these are known as "middle schools." Generally speaking, however, there were no "breaks," organizationally or otherwise, between grades 5 and 6 (primary and middle schools), or grades 7 and 8 (middle and high schools) in these schools, until recently. As educational planning procedures have developed, there has been a tendency to consider the first five grades to be a primary school, and the upper five grades a secondary school. The term "middle" school is gradually disappearing as these schools add grades and become full secondary schools.

Sanskrit Schools

The Sanskrit secondary schools developed very slowly, there being only two such schools by 1951. They were preparatory schools for the Sanskrit college, which was finally established in 1948. Prior to that

time, a number of promising students were sent to India, particularly to Banaras, to complete their Sanskrit studies. By 1961, however, there were 10 Sanskrit secondary schools in Nepal.

The purpose of these schools is to train Sanskrit scholars. Until about 1960 this purpose was pursued, without any diversions, by devoting the full day to reading Sanskrit. Today, Nepali language, Nepali history and geography, and simple arithmetic supplement the Sanskrit. Sports, forensics, and music are often available as extracurricular activities.

Basic Schools

The introduction of the Basic Education program in 1947 provided for the establishment of Basic High Schools when needed. There were two by 1951, and 13 by 1954, but all were abandoned by 1961.

The curriculum of these secondary schools continued the program of the Basic Primary Schools, and provision was made in the centrally controlled S.L.C. examination for students from the schools to be examined in agriculture, drawing, painting, spinning, weaving, and domestic science, in addition to more academic subjects. However, the curriculum was not sufficiently academic to enable the students to compete with those from English schools, for which the examination was originally designed. The demise of the basic schools was largely due to the increasing availability of English-type secondary schools in which the curriculum was better adapted to the S.L.C. examination, and to the general stigma attached to practical vocational education. Furthermore, Basic Education being new, job descriptions and recruiters made few demands for this kind of training.

Multipurpose (Comprehensive) Schools

The National Education Planning Commission in 1954 appointed a special subcommittee to develop a curriculum for secondary education in Nepal. Following a year's intensive study of the needs of the country's youth, and the best ways of satisfying these needs, the subcommittee proposed a multipurpose or comprehensive high school for Nepal. Such a school would provide general and cultural education, and vocational education in several major areas. Specifically, it provided for training civic and political leaders, professional and economic

leaders, and technical leaders, and for the perpetuation of Nepalese culture and the development of democracy.

The core subjects, or common learning, included social studies, applied science, Nepali, English, applied mathematics, and personal-physical development. The vocational "majors" included (as needs indicated) preprofessional, commercial, agricultural, industrial, and homemaking subjects. Finally, provision was made for avocational subjects, and for a major in Sanskrit; thus, the forms and content of the three earlier types of secondary schools could be incorporated into a single national secondary school.

Although the Commission accepted the report of the subcommittee, and the Government decreed that all secondary schools should gradually become comprehensive in nature, it is not difficult to understand why as late as 1961 only two [35] such schools had been established, and these were incomplete in the vocational subjects. By placing vocational education in the comprehensive school, it was hoped that some of the vocational stigma problem would be mitigated, and perhaps it has been. However, the examination system still hangs over secondary education as a "sword of Damocles," ensuring so-called "respectability," and restraining the more practical approach to education. The shortage of teachers for the vocational subjects, the increased costs of facilities, the lack of specific courses of study and teachers' guides, the general shortage of educators with training and experience for this type of leadership, and the slow growth of secondary education, all help to explain why the multipurpose or comprehensive high school is still in the "drawing board" stage. Yet it must be noted that the development of such schools is being stimulated by the Educational Materials Organization, which has distributed scarce vocational education equipment to the handful of schools currently converting to the multipurpose curriculum, and has included a demonstration school of this type in the new center being built just outside Kathmandu.

Extent of Secondary Education

Secondary education has developed very slowly in Nepal. Such statistics as are available indicate, for example, that only a total of

[35] The demonstration school at the College of Education, and one at Pokhara in mid-western Nepal.

1,672 students had passed the secondary school-leaving examinations prior to 1952. By the end of 1961, 8,204 additional young people had passed these examinations.[36]

Estimates of enrollment data since 1951 are available and are presented in table 2.

The limited expansion of secondary education was of considerable concern to the UNESCO team. In 1962, it pointed out that enrollment growth was not keeping pace with population growth in the relevant age-group. The National Education Planning Commission in 1954 recommended that secondary school enrollment be kept at about 20 percent of the primary school enrollment for several decades, a ratio also suported by UNESCO. Application of this formula would suggest an enrollment of 36,500 in 1961, nearly twice the actual enrollment. The UNESCO team also noted a shortage of secondary school graduates available for teacher, nursing, and other training, and recommended accelerated efforts to bring secondary enrollment to 20 percent of primary enrollment by 1970.

Secondary education in Nepal is mostly co-educational, but there are several girls' secondary schools and one boys' secondary school, a private missionary sponsored school. The percentage of girls enrolled is estimated to have increased from 6 percent in 1954 to 19 percent in 1961.

To a greater degree than is the case with primary schools, secondary education has failed to reach the more remote and less populated areas of Nepal. However, the Three-Year Plan (1963–65) proposes at least one secondary school in every development block.

The teacher-pupil ratios vary by districts from 1:6 to 1:19, with a national average of 1:13. The UNESCO team recommended increasing this ratio to 1:20 or 1:25 as an economy measure and to provide for an immediate increase in enrollment.

There have been proposals to lengthen the high school to 6 years. The UNESCO team recommended that this be postponed for a few years, as it would increase high school costs by 20 percent, and additional funds are more urgently needed for increasing enrollments.

Wastage and the Examination System

The control of the curriculum of secondary education is at present in the hands of the S.L.C. Board, which is now appointed by the

[36] Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 42.

Table 2.—Secondary schools: By type of school, number of schools and of pupils [1]

Type of school	1951 Number of—		1954 Number of—		1961 Number of—		1963 Number of—	
	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils
Sanskrit	2	1,215	5	14,777	10	21,115	182	33,340
English	7		65		144			
Basic	2		13		0			
Comprehensive	0		0		2			
Total	**11**	**1,215**	**83**	**14,777**	**156**	**21,115**	**182**	**33,340**
Percent of age-group (11–15) enrolled		0.3		1.6		2.1		3.1

[1] The sources for this table are the same as for table 1. The basic data for 1951, 1954, and 1961 have been adjusted to exclude pupils of the primary grades of the secondary schools. Only schools having all secondary grades (6–10) have been counted in the number of schools, but the 6th and 7th grade pupils of the "middle" schools have been included as secondary school pupils. The data for 1963 are estimates, but seem to be reasonable.

Table 3.—Secondary school examinations in Nepal: By subject, number of papers, and "marks"

Subject	Number of papers	Maximum "marks"
English	2	200
Elementary Nepali and Sanskrit [1]	2 (50 each)	100
Oriental Language (Nepali, Hindi, Urdu, Bengali, Marthilli, or Bhasa)	1	100
Mathematics compulsory	1	100
or		
Arithmetic and Nepali counting	2 (50 each)	100
History or geography	1	100
General science or general knowledge	1	100
or		
Domestic science (for girls)	1	100
Any Group B optional subjects [2]	1	100
Any Group C extra-optional subjects [3]	1	100
Total	10	900

[1] Girls may substitute First Aid and needlework for Sanskrit.

[2] Agriculture, chemical technology, drawing and painting, classical language, elementary biology, elementary civics, elementary physics and chemistry, geography, history, mathematics, music, spinning, weaving.

[3] Commercial geography, hygiene and physiology, modern European language, rural economics and cooperation.

Minister of Education. Since 1932, when the first board was appointed, this board has determined the subjects and contents of the examinations which are given at the end of the secondary school period to determine whether students are to be given a School Leaving Certificate. Thus, in fact, preparation for these examinations becomes the curriculum; all efforts are bent towards them, and learning experiences not so covered have very little status.

The S.L.C. Board provides a printed list of the subjects in which students are to be examined. The subject list does not change without due notice, which may extend for as long as 5 years if such a waiting period is necessary to rearrange the students' programs. For example, the 1951 regulations, still in effect with amendments, provide examinations as outlined in table 3.

The S.L.C. Board also issues a pamphlet [37] which prescribes the textbooks to be used and enumerates in detail what each examination will cover. For example, the English examination breaks down the first paper as follows:

[37] *Courses of Study for the School Leaving Certificate.*

	"Marks"
Translation from Nepali to English, 20 lines	25
Letter writing, story, amplification and dialogue	15
Essay	30
General question from "Rapid Reading Books"	15
Substance writing	15

The arithmetic examination covers "the four simple rules, the H.C.F. and L.C.M., vulgar and decimal fractions, reductions, extraction of square root, practice, ratio and proportion, simple interest, metric system, square and cubic measure." The history of Great Britain covers: "William, Mary and Anne (1688–1714), Bill of Rights, Parliament, Whigs and Tories, Cabinets . . . policies of Baldwin, Chamberlain, and Churchill . . . ."

"Practical" examinations are included in such subjects as First Aid and needlework, agriculture, weaving, and so on. An amendment relative to the English examination reads: "Delete poetry pieces nos. 1, 3, 6, 19, 33, 35, 40, 66, and 70," and "Add nos. 16, 'Man,' 32, 'Avarice,' and 75, 'The Last Word.' " This kind of detail continues for 64 pages.

This examination system produces some interesting phenomena. To add a subject to the curriculum requires the approval of the S.L.C. Board, and this in turn requires that an examination for the subjects actually be prepared before the subject can be approved and taught. Students feel that they do not have time for any learning experiences not covered by the examinations. Furthermore, the students hold the board strictly to the printed outline of questions; student rioting has broken out when "surprise" questions have been included or the questions have seemed too difficult. New examination questions are carefully guarded against theft; answer papers are guarded to prevent alteration.

Although no official provision is made for annual examinations or progress reports, many schools now supplement the final S.L.C. examinations with annual tests and issue progress reports. On a semi-official basis, "practice exams," which attempt to duplicate the questions on the final examination, are given just before the S.L.C. examinations.

Anyone may take the examination by paying his fee, even though he may have made unsatisfactory progress or "failed" the practice exam; or he may take it as a "private" candidate, even if he has never attended school.

The examination system obviously impedes the development and application of modern theories of learning and a practical philosophy of education. Of equal importance is the tremendous wastage that results, both in economic and human resources. Nearly two-thirds of

the S.L.C. candidates are failed each year, and the other third do not generally attain standards comparable to secondary school diplomas in other countries. The rate of failure was 40 percent prior to 1951, but with the expansion of secondary education since then, it has risen steadily to 65 percent in 1961. The UNESCO team in 1962 severely criticized this wastage, and estimated the economic loss, based on potential life-time earnings, to have been Rs. 220,000,000 from 1934 to 1961, and predicted it would rise to Rs. 1,000,000,000 by 1970 if some action is not taken to correct the system. The UNESCO team further pointed out that present teachers and facilities could produce twice as many graduates at the same cost (without increasing the teacher-student ratio) under an improved system. And, one cannot ignore the human loss—loss of status, position, morale, and opportunity to serve the community and nation.

Improvement of Secondary Education

A number of measures seem essential to the development of modern secondary education in Nepal:

1. Implementation of the comprehensive curriculum and introduction of modern methodology
2. Adoption of the practical philosophy recommended by the National Educational Planning Commission and officially approved by the government
3. The development of criteria and machinery for maintaining reasonable standards
4. Gradual elimination of the present examination system.

Educational leadership is aware of these needs, and the improvement of secondary education appears to be the next focus of attention on education in Nepal.

An Education Act has been proposed which would establish a Board of Secondary Education, composed of three to five members, representing both government and lay persons and including the Director of Public Instruction as executive secretary. The board would be responsible for the operation of all secondary schools (both public and private) in the country. Administrative responsibility for all employees of secondary schools and the division of secondary education in the Ministry of Education would be transferred to this board.

Under the proposed Act, the board would receive lump-sum grants from the government and have complete autonomy in the distribution

of funds—thus, it is hoped, freeing it from various political pressures and government "redtape." Whether it would have the authority to assess direct taxes has not yet been decided.

The present S.L.C. Board would continue to function as an examining agency. An Academic Committee would be appointed to develop and approve the curriculum, courses of study, and textbooks, and to deal with all other academic matters.

Under such an arrangement, the development of secondary education could be given considerable impetus. The arrangement implies, however, the separation of primary and secondary education, such as occurred in the United States during the early developmental period, and which educators have been trying to correct for the last three or four decades. It might well result in separate autonomous agencies for primary, secondary, higher, and technical education in Nepal.

VII. Higher Education

The Development of Institutions

Higher education in Nepal has developed quite recently. Following the establishment of colleges and universities in India during the last quarter of the 19th century, a few Nepalese youth probably found their way into them; it is known that some from the more favored economic classes were sent to India for study after 1900. College attendance in Nepal increased somewhat after 1918, but the most significant expansion came after 1951.

Tri-Chandra College

The first college was established in Nepal in 1918 by Prime Minister Chandra Shumshere Rana, and named Tri-Chandra College. The first part of the name came from the then youthful King Tribhuvan who, with the rest of his family, was confined to the palace grounds by the Rana dictators. Presumably Chandra thought the King's name would lend dignity and prestige to the institution, which it has done.

Chandra's motives for establishing a college must have been mixed. It has been suggested that he wanted a "showplace" to demonstrate his "progressivism." But there were few visitors to impress and the Nepalese and Indians knew him well by his other actions. It is known that he and other Ranas were dissatisfied with the kind of higher education and the college life in the Indian universities to which a few Nepalese youth were being sent. To correct this condition, and perhaps make higher education less expensive by keeping youth at home, may have been the predominant motives. Some have suggested also that Chandra's motives were altruistic and that he intended to open the schools and the college to the common people. Support for this is found in his now classic prediction at the inaugural ceremonies

when he said, as he cut the ribbon across the college entrance door, "With these scissors, I cut the future of the Ranas." He could see that education was incompatible with autocracy; he must have foreseen the use of Tri-Chandra College by the common people.

Although the enrollment never exceeded 200 before 1951, Tri-Chandra College today is the major institution of higher learning in Nepal. In 1961 it enrolled 1,550 students in its three divisions: liberal arts, science, and commerce. It offers three baccalaureate degrees, each requiring 4 years of study: the B.A. with majors in history, political science, economics, English and the other liberal arts; the B.Sc. with majors in the several science areas; and B.Com. with majors in secretarial science, accounting, and general business. Like the other colleges, Tri-Chandra requires that candidates for admission be able to present the Secondary School Leaving Certificate.

The Sanskrit College

Sanskrit education received modest support from the Ranas and even from serving boys not born of Rana families. Quite a few of the boys were sent to Banaras for college training, perhaps because Sanskrit scholars were not considered to pose a threat to the Rana autocracy. In 1948, the Sanskrit College was established in Kathmandu with about 25 students. By 1961, it had increased in size to 16 staff members and 142 students, and two regional Sanskrit Colleges had been established at Dharan and Dang. They offer a degree comparable to the baccalaureate.

The curriculum follows the pattern set by the Sanskrit College at Banaras. Prior to 1956, all of the curriculum was devoted to Sanskrit studies; since that time, some social sciences, Nepali, and other liberal arts classes have been introduced. The function of the institution remains the same, however—the preparation of Sanskrit scholars.

Professional Colleges

In 1954, a Law College was established in Kathmandu, operating during evening hours. It provided a 2-year Bachelor of Laws (B.L.) program, with a curriculum centering on the law of India, England, and Nepal. It proved to be quite popular, both for those who gave

serious consideration to the study of law and those who desired an additional degree. By 1961, it had graduated 95 students and achieved an enrollment of 181 for that year.

The College of Education was established in 1956 to prepare secondary school teachers, normal school teachers, school administrators, and other professional leaders. It offers a 2-year program for the Intermediate Education (I.Ed.) Certificate, and an additional 2 years for the B.Ed. degree, based on liberal arts and professional training, with a curriculum similar to that of American teachers colleges. It also offers a 1-year B.Ed. degree for liberal arts graduates, which comprises only the professional work of the 4-year degree. The college also plans to offer the M.Ed. degree, earned after 1 year of advanced professional training. In the 3 years from 1959 to 1961, the institution graduated 75 students; enrollment in 1961 was 150.

The Public Commerce College was established in 1958 as a night school and offers the 2-year Intermediate Commerce (I.Com.) Certificate and the Baccalaureate (B.Com.) degree. It has been quite popular, as it offers college opportunity to youth who must work. In 1961, it enrolled 253 students. The commerce curriculum is also offered on a daytime schedule in Tri-Chandra College (for 527 students) and in four regional liberal arts colleges at Dharan, Biratnagar, Birgunj, and Tansen. The curriculum is both general and professional, but there is limited training in the use of typewriters and other business machines.

A College of Music has been in existence for several years and was recognized by the government (with a grant-in-aid) in 1963. The enrollment is less than 25 and no degrees have been granted as yet.

Other Liberal Arts and Science Colleges

With the overthrow of the Ranas (February 1951), higher education spread rapidly in Nepal. Before the end of 1951, two new liberal arts colleges had opened in Kathmandu, one a "night" college. In 1952, a college was established in Birgunj, and in 1954 another was set up in Patan. The next year, two colleges opened in eastern Nepal, and the institutions then multiplied at the rate of about four per year, until by 1961 there were 31 institutions of higher learning in Nepal, including the four professional schools and a university (see list, appendix A).[38] Several more are known to have been organized

[38] Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 48.

since then, but they have not yet received final official government recognition in the form of financial grants.

Traditionally in Nepal, the liberal arts college does not include science. A science department was added at Tri-Chandra College in the late 1940's, and an independent Public Science College was established in 1956. By 1961, three of the regional colleges also offered science, and the science enrollment was: Tri-Chandra, 640; Public Science College, 303; others, 175. The science curriculum is at the undergraduate level only; laboratory facilities are limited in the regional colleges.

The University

The concept of a university often encountered in the parts of Asia subject to British influence is that of an organization which coordinates several colleges and administers their final examinations; it may have no teaching function as such. Under this pattern, Tri-Chandra College from its inception was affiliated to Patna University in India, and the Sanskrit College to Queen's College in Banaras. As they were founded, others sought affiliation to Indian institutions, except for the College of Education, which awarded its own degrees on the authority of the Nepal Education Ministry.

This dependence on Indian universities was onerous to many Nepalese. In August 1948, the Prime Minister appointed a commission of 25 members to prepare a plan for the establishment of a national university in Nepal. The commission recommended a residential type university that would offer classes as well as affiliate the various colleges of Nepal, and would also develop courses of study for the various subjects, but nothing came of the recommendations.

In 1954, the National Education Planning Commission appointed a subcommittee to study higher education. This group, and subsequently the Commission, strongly recommended the immediate establishment of a national residential-affiliating university. Details were outlined in the Commission's report.[39]

In 1956, another university commission was appointed. After 3 years of deliberation, Tribhuvan University was formally established by Tribhuvan's son, King Mahendra. By 1963, the university had procured its own site, and was offering graduate classes, supervising the examinations, and gradually extending affiliation to some of the

[39] Pandey, Bahadur, and Wood, *op. cit.*, pp. 127–150.

colleges. The charter follows the Indian pattern of organization and administration and provides for both teaching and affiliating functions.[40] The present University Senate now has sole legal responsibility for higher education in Nepal and has the authority to grant academic recognition to the several colleges, but is largely dependent upon the Education Ministry for operating funds, and, in this way, shares the responsibility.

The Senate comprises about 50 persons, including officials from the various departments of the government and representatives of the staff and alumni of the University. It generally meets once a year. A smaller body, know as the Syndicate and responsible to the Senate, meets monthly and supervises the actual operation of the University. The Chancellor, at present His Majesty, the King, is an honorary official, but has full veto power. The Vice-Chancellor, appointed by the Chancellor, is the actual administrative head of the University. Principals (heads) of the several colleges operate their own institutions with considerable autonomy.

Expansion of Higher Education

Higher education enrollment increased more than twenty-fold in the decade 1951–61, as may be seen in table 4. The UNESCO team, however, in 1962 believed that this expansion had created an imbalance and strongly recommended several controlling measures. Their report pointed out that the National Education Planning Commission in 1954 had recommended that college enrollment be held to 5 percent of the high school enrollment, a ratio now supported by UNESCO for developing countries. This ratio would yield a college enrollment of 1,056 for 1961, based on actual secondary school enrollments in that year, or 1,825 if secondary enrollments in 1961 had been the full recommended 20 percent of primary school enrollments (see p. 42).

Sixteen of the colleges existing in 1961 had less than 100 students—one institution had only 6 enrollees; 10 more fell in the 100–250 category. Many had no buildings of their own, no libraries, no laboratories and no money to pay staff members. The UNESCO team recommended an immediate moratorium on the establishent of additional colleges, and the consolidation of existing liberal arts and science

[40] See "An Act Promulgated for the Establishment and Organization of a Teaching and Affiliating University," *The Nepal Gazette*, June 8, 1959.

Table 4.—Selected data on higher education [1]

Item	1951	1954	1961
Number of colleges [2]	2	14	33
Number of students	250	1, 320	5, 143
Number of staff	n.a.	86	417
Percent of women	n.a.	4. 8	15
Number of graduates in given year	n.a.	94	244
Number of students abroad	n.a.	2, 000	3, 740

[1] Source: Wood and Knall, op. cit. p. 46.
[2] See appendix A for list of colleges.

institutions into three strong colleges, one in Kathmandu, one in East Nepal, and one in West Nepal. The team also recommended the reduction of total college enrollment to about 4,000 by stiffening entrance and retention standards.

Furthermore, as at the secondary level, there is a heavy wastage of human resources in higher education, caused by the examination system. Only about 40 percent pass the intermediate examinations, given at the end of the first 2 years; about 45 percent pass the liberal arts and science baccalaureate examinations; and about 75 percent pass the professional baccalaureate examinations. Thus, the application of better screening procedures could well reduce enrollments without reducing the number of graduates.

Finally, the team found a serious imbalance in enrollments. It was estimated that there were about 500 unemployed college graduates in 1962, nearly all of them in economics, political science, or history. On the other hand, the College of Education could not fill its classes, and scholarships for nursing, medicine, engineering and other fields were unused. The UNESCO team recommended a system of quotas to correct and control this situation.

Quality of Higher Education

From the foregoing evidence it would appear that the quality of higher education in Nepal suffers from lack of organization and control, low standards of admission, poorly paid teachers, lack of facilities, and dissipation of efforts. The teacher-student ratio for all colleges is 1:14, but it is as low as 1:6 in small institutions. The UNESCO team recognized the desirability of keeping the ratio low,

but pointed out that maintenance of the present ratio is unnecessarily expensive and thus often results in the hiring of low quality staff members whose teaching is unchallenging to the student. By increasing this ratio to 1:20, teachers could be paid more attractive salaries. Also, by reducing enrollments, inadequately trained teachers could be released until properly trained.

Teaching is largely confined to lecturing; there is little incentive to study or to try to learn until the last few weeks before the examinations, at which time there is intensive "cramming." Teaching aids, even textbooks, are scarce.

Nearly one-third of the educational expenditures in Nepal today are for higher education. In view of the imbalance between secondary and higher education enrollments, the UNESCO team recommended that higher education costs should be cut back to perhaps 20 percent of the total.

Several hundred students are sent abroad each year, usually on scholarships offered by the host country government, for advanced training in disciplines not offered in Nepal: medicine, engineering, doctorate-level education, and other areas. This program of overseas training will probably continue until funds and demands are adequate to justify the establishment of additional professional colleges in Nepal.

In conclusion, it should be noted that some efforts are under way to improve the academic quality of Nepal's higher education. Some of the newer practices adopted by the College of Education when it was established have been introduced into other colleges. The Academic Council of the University has recommended certain improvements. As a result of these and other forces, there are recognizable trends which suggest a graduai broadening of the curriculum, the introduction of newer and varied methods of teaching and new teaching aids, and a reformation in the examination system. In support of the latter cause, some colleges have introduced internal examinations and student assessment by the instructors themselves.

Furthermore, there is growing awareness of the *need* for improvement and reorganization of higher education. The recommendations of the UNESCO team regarding enrollment control, both in respects to total numbers and to distribution among specific disciplines, and regarding the consolidation of existing colleges and new expansion efforts, are being given careful consideration. Most important, there is now an administrative structure for supervising and controlling developments in Nepal's higher education.

VIII. Teacher Education

Development of the Program

The Normal Schools

The first institution for the education of teachers in Nepal was established in 1947 when the Basic Education Program was introduced from India. Because of the unique characteristics of the program, it was necessary to prepare teachers in the content of the curriculum as well as in methodology.

Several persons were sent to India for training as staff members of the institution, a building was erected, and a demonstration school was established. The program did not flourish, however, due to lack of popular interest and financial support, and the institution was closed in 1954. It is estimated that about 100 teachers were enrolled during this period.

The National Education Planning Commission early in 1954 recognized the importance of teacher education, if its major goals were to be realized. Months before making its report, the Commission had urged the Education Ministry to initiate a program for preparing primary school teachers. Accordingly, the Ministry negotiated a three-way contract with the U.S. International Cooperation Administration and the University of Oregon to plan and develop a complete program for the education of all kinds of teachers, administrators, and other needed educational personnel.

Within a few weeks the Basic Education Training Center was reorganized, and was reactivated in July 1954 as the first Normal School in Nepal. The institution offered a 6-month primary school teachers' course for inexperienced candidates, and a 3-month inservice course for those having some teaching experience. In 1955, the course was extended to 9 months for all candidates, allowing about two-thirds of the time for acquainting them with the new primary school curriculum

recommended by the National Education Planning Commission, and the remainder of the time for professional work. In 1963, the course was extended to 2 years, thus allowing for a much higher level of training.

Those in charge of the program were fully aware of the universal problem of mobility inertia, the rural-urban migrating pattern in developing countries, and the prevalence of inherent provincialism in such countries. In these circumstances, it has been found that people who have been reared in large towns and cities do not want to go to rural areas to live and teach; people reared in rural areas who come to urban communities for as long as 9 months to prepare themselves as teachers do not want to return to their rural or village homes to live and teach; and those who live in rural areas and small villages do not readily accept teachers from urban areas. In short, provincialism discourages mobility. For these reasons, in Nepal there were very few candidates for training from outside the Kathmandu Valley; few teachers were willing to go to the hinterlands to teach; and few communities outside the valley were ready to accept teachers from the urban centers.

To cope with this situation a unique plan was conceived. Beginning in 1956, Mobile Normal School Teams were organized and given professional education, and then sent to the various districts of Nepal to conduct 9-month training courses for youth in the area. Soon, a dozen teams were in the field. By rotating these teams each year, all of Nepal can be covered in 3 or 4 years; the teams can then begin their circuit again. In this way, the normal school program has been taken to the hinterlands and the problems mentioned above have been largely overcome.

A team generally comprises four to six specialists in the social sciences, languages, science, crafts, pedagogy, fine arts, music, and sports. Each team carries its own professional library and textbooks. On arrival in a district, it procures quarters for the Mobile Normal School and obtains the necessary furniture. Sometimes the team must construct a bamboo and thatch building, which upon their departure becomes a new primary school.

Several weeks are devoted to recruiting 30 to 75 trainees from the villages within 2 or 3 days' journey of the school. Village headmen are asked to send candidates for the program and to agree to open new schools upon return of the new teachers. At the close of the course, the team members spend several weeks helping the graduates open their new schools, and then return to Kathmandu for a 6-week

refresher workshop with all of the other Normal School teachers, and reassignment.

In Kathmandu, many of the trainees are high school graduates. In the hinterlands, however, where there have never been any schools, most of the candidates can claim as a qualification no more than literacy, usually obtained through a tutor, perhaps a retired Gurkha soldier. In the extreme north, where residents speak mostly the Tibetan language, the team spends the first year on language training, and returns a second year to complete the program.

The Mobile Normal School Teams are supervised by staff members of the College of Education who visit the normal school every 2 or 3 months. This provides firsthand knowledge and experience for the college staff members as well as contacts with the normal school. The school in Kathmandu now serves as a model and practice school for normal school staff being prepared in the College of Education.[41]

The College of Education

The second phase of the teacher education program was the development of a College of Education. Professional preparation of the staff for this institution began in 1954 with some on-the-spot professional courses taught by the writer. During 1955–56, eight Nepalese went to the University of Oregon for further education, and to plan the details of the College of Education. On their return, the College was opened. From 1956 to 1959, 40 additional educators were sent to Oregon for training.

The functions of the College are: to prepare secondary school teachers, administrators and supervisors, normal school staff, and other educational personnel as needed; to provide workshops and other classes for inservice training; to supervise the Normal School program; to encourage and supervise educational research; to direct the preparation and publication of textbooks and other teaching aids; to establish and operate demonstration primary and secondary schools; to develop an adult literacy program; and to provide other educational services and leadership as needed. All of these activities were initiated and developed to an operational level by 1959; subsequently, several were transferred to the Education Directorate.

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[41] Additional details on the preparation of primary teachers are included in *Manual for Training Teachers in Nepal*. Kathmandu: Bureau of Publications, College of Education, 1956; and Hugh B. Wood, "Mobile Normal Schools in Nepal" (unpublished manuscript).

The College of Education today has good facilities, and has become a part of the Tribhuvan University. As indicated in the previous section, it offers the 2-year I.Ed. Certificate and the 4-year (general and professional education) B.Ed. degree, and also the 1-year (professional) B.Ed. degree. It plans to offer the 2-year (advanced professional) M.Ed. degree soon. The students must have passed the S.L.C. to be admitted to the 4-year program (which includes 2 years for the I.Ed. certificate and 2 more years for the B.Ed. degree). Candidates for the 1-year professional B.Ed. degree must hold a baccalaureate degree; candidates for the M.Ed. degree must hold the B.Ed. degree. All students in the College of Education receive subsistence stipends; in spite of this, there is a severe shortage of applicants to the College.

Extent of Teacher Education

Since the initiation of the Normal School program in 1954, an effort has been made to keep a balance between the number of teachers prepared and the number needed. This has not been easy. During the first 2 years there was a surplus of trained teachers in the Kathmandu Valley and a shortage in the hinterlands. Later, this surplus shifted to the Terai area, where there were more schools and more educated people, and recruiting was easier than placement.

In 1962, the UNESCO team made an extensive study of the distribution of trained teachers in relation to the total number of primary school teachers in each district. This, in a way, was a test of the effectiveness of the assignment of the Mobile Normal School teams, as well as an indication of whether or not there was balanced distribution. They found that 6 out of the 32 districts had no trained teachers. In three districts there were more trained teachers than available positions, indicating some unemployment. The majority of the districts, however, had from 30 percent to 80 percent trained teachers (national average, 52 percent) indicating reasonable balance.

From 1954 to 1961, 3,598 primary school teachers were prepared in the Mobile Normal Schools in 25 different centers. At various times, from 4 to 15 teams, involving a total of between 22 and 49 staff members, were engaged in this work.

From 1956 to 1961, the College of Education enrolled an average of 170 students, graduated 75, and conducted workshops for 233 educators.

The attrition in the normal schools, between admission and completion, was only 2.5 percent in the 1954–61 period. In the College of Education, however, higher academic standards, a longer period for the program, and competition from other colleges, have raised the annual attrition rate to nearly 20 percent. The loss on the final examination has been only 18 percent.[42]

Status of the Nepalese Teacher

The Nepalese teacher does not hold a particularly high social or economic position in Nepalese society today, but he holds an important one. Traditionally, teachers came from the Brahmin class (highest in the caste system); they were called "guru", a term of high respect and often affection. Older teachers in Nepal are still likely to fit this description.

Today, the teacher instructing in a new school or preparing for the profession is young, and may come from any caste, or be of the female sex. It is estimated that the ratio of women teachers has increased from about 2 percent in 1954 to about 15 percent in 1961. In the village, the teacher may be called on to settle minor disputes, run the library, read and write letters for the villagers, render first aid, and give advice; but his youth, if nothing else, precludes his acceptance as a major village leader. In larger centers, his functions may be less inclusive and he may be less active and well known in the community.

In 1953, primary school teachers commonly received Rs. 25 per month, secondary school teachers, about Rs. 65. The government scale for "peons" and sweepers (unskilled laborers) had been raised the year before from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30 per month. In 1954, an attempt was made to establish a minimum of Rs. 60 for primary school teachers who had completed the normal school program and had taken teaching assignments in new schools being opened with partial government support. Inasmuch as the community was supposed to pay one-third of the teacher's salary, but usually did not, the effective scale became Rs. 40.

Even today, no statistics are available for teachers' salaries, but they are known to be low. It may be safely assumed that at the pri-

[42] Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 58–63.

mary school level, salaries are comparable to those of sweepers and peons, or about half the income of a trail porter. At the secondary level, they may be slightly more than double that of the primary school teachers. The present official government pay scale is: peon, Rs. 45; positions requiring 2 years of college, Rs. 120–175; bachelor's degree, Rs. 200–400; master's degree, Rs. 350 and up. However, not all schools pay according to this scale, and the average will be considerably less.

There are no certification requirements for teachers as yet, but the question has been under discussion from time to time. Primary school teachers will probably be required to have 1 or 2 years of normal school, and high school teachers, 2 years of college or a baccalaureate degree. Enforcement of such requirements will have to be gradual in order to allow teachers to attain these respective levels of education while continuing their teaching duties. Teachers associations and other professional organizations are gradually being formed. A National Secondary School Teachers Association and an Association of University Teachers have held organizational meetings; also, a single national organization for educators has been proposed.

IX. Specialized Technical and Vocational Education

Extent of Specialized Education

The economic development of Nepal has created a demand for specialized technical and vocational education of many types and levels. The first programs for this purpose were established in 1953 with the introduction of economic aid, initially from the United States and, later, from other countries and agencies. Today, nearly all of the specialized training institutions are part of the foreign economic aid program.

The fact that support for these programs comes largely from 11 foreign countries and agencies, each with its own motives and purposes, explains the general lack of coordination. In 1962, the UNESCO team identified 24 separate institutions, with a combined staff of 124, offering training to 1,562 persons. These programs were administered by eight different ministries, none of which was the Education Ministry.

In addition to the local program, 2,163 trainees were sent abroad for technical, and in some cases, professional education, between 1951 and 1961. Two-thirds of these were trained in India, about 250 in the United States, and the remainder in 18 other countries. About half of the totals were enrolled at subcollegiate level.

A third source of specialists is the large number of retired Gurkha soldiers, estimated to be increasing at the rate of about 1,000 per year. These men receive various types of technical training in the Indian and British armies (in mechanics, communications, medical service, etc.), and special training of their own choice just prior to retirement. They generally retire between the ages of 37 and 40, and thus represent a technically trained manpower potential, not heretofore utilized.

Table 5.—Selected data on specialized training in Nepal

Institutions and fields	1961		Total trained	
	Enrollment	Staff	In Nepal to 1961	Abroad under foreign scholarships, 1951–61 [1]
Total	**1,562**	**124**	**3,895**	**2,163**
HEALTH				418
Nurses Training School	46	7	24	--
United Mission Hospital	8	3	3	--
Health Assistants School	46	7	65	--
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, HOME ECONOMICS				
Rural Institutes (2)	159	25	1,360	41
School of Agriculture	78	13	301	277
Dairy Training	0	0	6	--
Forestry Institute	103	4	102	55
Home Economics Training School	40	6	125	--
Irrigation School	17	2	0	--
INDUSTRY				43
Cottage Industry Training Center	466	18	1,133	--
Swiss Mechanical Training School	4	2	8	--
Red Cross Tibetan Relief School	280	6	0	--
ENGINEERING				
Engineering School	20	2	20	603
Overseers Training	101	5	32	--
Cadastral Survey Schools (4)	0	0	548	--
Mining Training School	16	8	0	--
Telecommunication School	143	10	0	35
ADMINISTRATION				[2] 209
Clerk-Secretarial Training Center	35	2	0	--
Population Census Training	0	4	168	--

Source: Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 56 and 59.

[1] In addition to those listed hereunder, 415 scholarships were granted in "general education," mostly at the college level, which included some training in technical subjects, especially in home economics and engineering.

[2] Includes:

aviation	33	cooperatives	26
publicity	9	law	11
survey and statistics	26	police	27
administration	53	taxes and customs	11
		tourism	3

An overall picture of the status of specialized training in Nepal is provided in table 5. The training courses listed in the table, and discussed in more detail below, vary widely in duration and level. Some courses—specifically those in nursing—last for as long as 3½ years, while others, such as certain programs in the clerical-secretarial

center, cover only 2 or 3 months' training. The level of instruction in the various courses is also quite disparate, and is indicated by differing admission requirements. Only a few programs—e.g., more advanced courses offered at the rural agricultural institutes—require that entrants have college degrees or intermediate certificates. Other courses, including the one in dairy training and the Swiss mechanical training course, require no previous formal education. The majority of the courses are open to secondary school graduates.

Health

In the field of health, there are three local training programs, all in Kathmandu. WHO sponsors a nurses training school in connection with the government hospital, and a Protestant mission hospital trains nurses. The U.S. Operations Mission (now USAID) sponsors a Health Assistants School for training laboratory technicians and field workers. In addition, various agencies have made scholarships available for foreign training, mostly for doctors; 418 were sent abroad between 1951 and 1961. These agencies are under the Health Ministry.

Agriculture, Forestry, Home Economics

The first training programs to be inaugurated after 1951 were two Rural Institutes for training Village Development Workers, one sponsored by USOM, the other by the Indian Aid Mission. The functions of the men trained in these schools are similar to those of the County Extension Agent in the United States. At about the same time a Home Economics Training School was established, with the aid of a Ford Foundation grant, to train women to serve in the villages, much as the U.S. Home Demonstration Agent. The Swiss also introduced a small program to train cheesemakers and other dairy specialists. Later, USOM assisted in opening schools for training agriculture technicians and forestry specialists, and in 1961, a special school for training irrigation specialists was established.

In addition to these local programs, about 420 persons were sent abroad prior to 1961 for training in agriculture, forestry, and home economics. These various programs have been administered by ministries for village development, agriculture, forestry and public works.

Industry

The major program of the Ford Foundation in Nepal was the establishment, with mostly German technicians, of a Cottage Industries Training Center in 1954. This program eventually expanded to include more than 20 trades or crafts, and several short-term regional institutes were held from time to time. The German Government added several trades to the training center in 1962. The Swiss have trained a few mechanics, but their major activity in this area has been, with the support of the Red Cross, the administration of the Tibetan refugee program, which includes primary schools for the children and trade training for adults. Only 43 scholarships for foreign study were awarded in the field of industry between 1951 and 1961.

Engineering

Several unsuccessful attempts have been made to establish an engineering college in Nepal. An engineering school was set up in 1954, but by 1961 only 20 students had completed the 2-year course. At one time, the facilities of the school were used to train "overseers," or men who could act as foremen on simple engineering jobs. In 1957, four cadastral survey schools were established in Kathmandu, Birgunj, Biratnager, and Bhairawa to provide a 6-month course for training surveyors, but these were discontinued after one term. In 1960, a telecommunications school was opened to train technicians for the newly installed telephone system, and in 1961, a Mining Training School was opened.

More than 700 scholarships for foreign study were awarded in engineering and related subjects between 1951 and 1961. These programs were sponsored by various aid agencies, and administered by several different ministries.

Administration

Both of the schools in the administration category were established after 1960, one for training workers for the 1961 census, the other for training government clerks and secretaries. However, some of the earliest foreign scholarships (five in 1952) were awarded for training in police work, law, and statistics; nine were awarded in 1953 for study in the fields of publicity, taxation, cooperatives, and adminis-

tration. In 1961, the Government opened a Tourists Bureau and sent three persons abroad for training.

Status of Specialized Education

Technical and vocational education is critically essential in Nepal's economic development. In 1962, the UNESCO team made a thorough study of the extent and success of the several programs of such training, and offered a number of recommendations:[48]

1. Part of the present technical and vocational education can be provided in comprehensive secondary schools, as soon as they are established. This will help to distribute the traning to the geographic areas where it is needed. This possibility argues for acceleration of the secondary school program.
2. More specific technical training also will be needed; the UNESCO team recommended the establishment of five special institutes of health, agriculture, home economics, engineering and polytechnics to provide higher level intensified training. These institutions could be associated with colleges for the respective subjects, but would not offer work of college level. Present technical training programs in these fields would be absorbed by the proposed insitutions.
3. Technical training should be better coordinated, perhaps by the Minister of Education. Each of the five proposed institutions might be administered jointly by the appropriate technical ministry and the Ministry of Education.
4. Enrollment in these programs should be controlled by manpower needs, and this requires the establishment of a Manpower Board to continuously survey and evaluate needs in the labor force.
5. The UNESCO team noted considerable attrition in some of the present programs for training specialized personnel, but believed this could be corrected by consolidation and coordination of the programs, and the establishment of manpower survey facilities as suggested above.

Finally, the team recommended a study of the possibilities of making greater use of the Gurkha training and the terminal training facilities of the Indian armies. During the final 6–12-month training period, the Gurkhas could be advised of manpower needs in Nepal and trained for productive life after military retirement.

There is still a shortage of technically trained personnel in Nepal, and this will become more severe unless the program is expanded. One general technical institute is now under construction. Foreign scholarships will continue to be used, and eventually, technical colleges will be established. But there must be widespread technical and vocational education at the secondary level as well.

[48] See Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 58–63.

X. Adult Education

At the close of the Rana period (1951), literacy in Nepal was estimated to be about two percent of the population. Although there had been some efforts as early as 1947 to develop adult education, the first serious consideration of the problem came in 1953. Late in that year, Dr. Frank Laubach, of the World Literacy Foundation, was brought to Kathmandu to supervise the preparation of basic literacy readers. The National Education Planning Commission in 1954 included adult education in its list of major goals. It stated that adult literacy courses were second only to primary education in importance, but called for other forms of adult education, as well. It recommended: [44]

1. the establishment of classes in agriculture, homemaking, and handicrafts
2. the development of the fine and cultural arts
3. the widespread distribution of good literature
4. the broadening of civic knowledge.

As specific targets, the Commission suggested the training of 100,000 new literates by 1960, and a program for training 100,000 per year by 1965. It also recommended the establishment of other adult education classes, village libraries, and village radios—all to be available by 1965.

To support the literacy program, it was agreed that the normal school course for primary school teachers would include skills in teaching literacy classes, and that new teachers would be encouraged to open literacy classes for the parents of their primary school pupils. Teachers who taught evening literacy classes were to receive about 25 percent additional pay. Materials were to be furnished free. As a result of early efforts, basic readers, advanced readers, two series of pamphlets in health and agriculture, and a fortnightly literacy newspaper were prepared. Since 1959, additional materials in social studies, literature, and arithmetic have been produced by the Educational Materials Organization.

[44] See Pandey, Bahadur, and Wood, *op. cit.*, p. 151–160, for the Commission's recommendations. For additional material on adult education, see Wood and Knall, *op. cit.*, p. 63–69.

The program developed very effectively in many areas of the country, but lack of funds curtailed rapid expansion. By 1961, slightly less than 50,000 persons had received literacy training in some 1,900 classes. Nearly half a million pamphlets, charts, and newspapers had been printed, an average of 10 pieces per student. During the same period (1953–61) about 150 village libraries were opened. A "School of the Air" program was developed for broadcasting by the government radio station (the only one in the country), but very few schools had access to receiving sets.

As pointed out in the previous section, training of specialists in health, agricultural, homemaking, and cottage industries was underway by 1954, and these persons carried adult education of various types to about 1,000 communities by 1961. They have made an impressive record in the improvement of village sanitation and malaria eradication, in the introduction of newer farming methods, better diets, and cleaner homes, and the development of small industries.

In 1962, considerable impetus was given to the development of the panchayat, or village council system. Training in civic leadership was provided, and the panchayats were asked to take over responsibility for village improvement, including adult education.

The UNESCO team in 1962 noted that the several programs in adult education were being administered by various ministries without effective coordination. To correct this, and to permit a more rapid development in this area of education, the team recommended the establishment of an Adult Education Coordinating Committee, representative of the various ministries, and the appointment of a Coordinator of Adult Education to administer the total program. Under this arrangement, the Coordinator would be attached to the Ministry of Education.

Adult education is essential to Nepal's economic development. While a sound program has been inaugurated, there is a need to expand it and effect a better integration of the component parts.

XI. Summary

Nepal is a relatively small, developing country lying in the heart of Asia on the backbone of the Himalayas. Her strategic location as a buffer state between two giants, India and China, has dominated her history for centuries, and may well determine her future.

Since Nepal is apparently not well endowed with natural resources, the country's wealth is found mainly in the capabilities of her people. Thus, investment in the improvement of human resources—in education—becomes imperative to the economic growth and political development of the nation.

Released from the bondage of autocracy in 1951, Nepal today is forging ahead, with the substantial help of foreign aid. Education has been accepted as a state responsibility and a fundamental right of each individual. The central government is strengthening its administration and supervision of education, while at the same time laying the groundwork for the assumption of greater local responsibility.

The expansion of education is, and will be for some time, limited by the availability of economic resources. At present, goals and targets seem to be more ambitious than foreseeable resources will permit. But plans have been carefully laid for universal primary education, sound vocationally oriented secondary education, a national university, and widespread adult education. Encouraging progress is being made toward these goals. (See appendix B.)

The educational program that is developing in Nepal has many indigenous features; it suffers less than in many developing countries from imported influences. The National Education Planning Commission suggested the program diagramed in appendix C, and educational planners today seem to be following this lead, as least for the common schools. Universal 5-year primary education is conceived as basic training on which further education can be built as needed. A 5-year secondary school will offer training in occupational skills and preparation for college and technical training. Advanced tech-

nical training will be available; a national university will provide professional training; and extensive adult education will round out the program.

Nepal is not without problems in the field of education. Her financial resources are limited and she is heavily dependent upon foreign aid. There is some imbalance: for example, secondary and adult education lag while higher education exceeds the immediate needs; the examination system creates severe wastage at the secondary and college levels; technical education is poorly coordinated; there is a shortage of teaching materials, and some obsolescence of methods. But these problems can be solved if economic aid is continued for a few years, until the investment in human resources can begin to "pay off."

Some of the problems have been solved: for example, teacher education has been taken to the hinterlands with mobile normal school teams; primary school teachers have been trained to teach adult literacy classes; learning materials have been improved, etc. Some of the problems—e.g., dropouts and wastage, imbalance, lack of funds for adequate supervision—may remain for some time, as they have in well developed countries. But education is on the march in Nepal; the "vicious circle" in economic development is being broken by investment in education.

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APPENDIXES

A. List of Institutions of Higher Education in Nepal

B. Enrollment in Educational Programs in Nepal

C. Proposed Educational Pyramid for Nepal

Appendix A

List of Institutions of Higher Education in Nepal[1]

Name and location	Year founded	Type	Number of staff members	Number of students
UNIVERSITY:				
Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu	1959	Postgraduate only	32	260
PROFESSIONAL:				
Law College, Kathmandu	1954	Postgraduate, 2-year	8	181
College of Education, Kathmandu	1956	Degree	27	150
Pub. Commerce College, Kathmandu	1958	Degree (night)	14	253
College of Music, Kathmandu	--------	Degree	4	25
LIBERAL ARTS & SCIENCE:				
(*Kathmandu Valley*)				
Tri Chandra College, Kathmandu	1918	L.A., Sc., Com. Degree	72	(L.A.)383 (Sc.) 640 (Com)527
Sanskrit College, Kathmandu	1948	Degree, postgraduate	16	142
Padma Kanya College, Kathmandu	1951	L.A. Degree	16	306
Nepal National College, Kathmandu	1951	L.A. Degree (night)	23	385
Durbar College, Kathmandu	1952	L.A. Degree	9	156
Patan College, Patan	1954	L.A. Degree	17	215
Public Science College, Kathmandu	1956	Sc. Intermediate	8	303
Bhaktapur Intermediate College, Bhatgoan	1959	L.A. Intermediate	9	52
Saraswati Intermediate College, Kathmandu	1959	L.A. Intermediate	16	86
Ratna Rajya Laxmi College, Kathmandu (Girls)	1961	L.A. Intermediate	15	62

See footnote at end of table.

Appendix A–Cont.

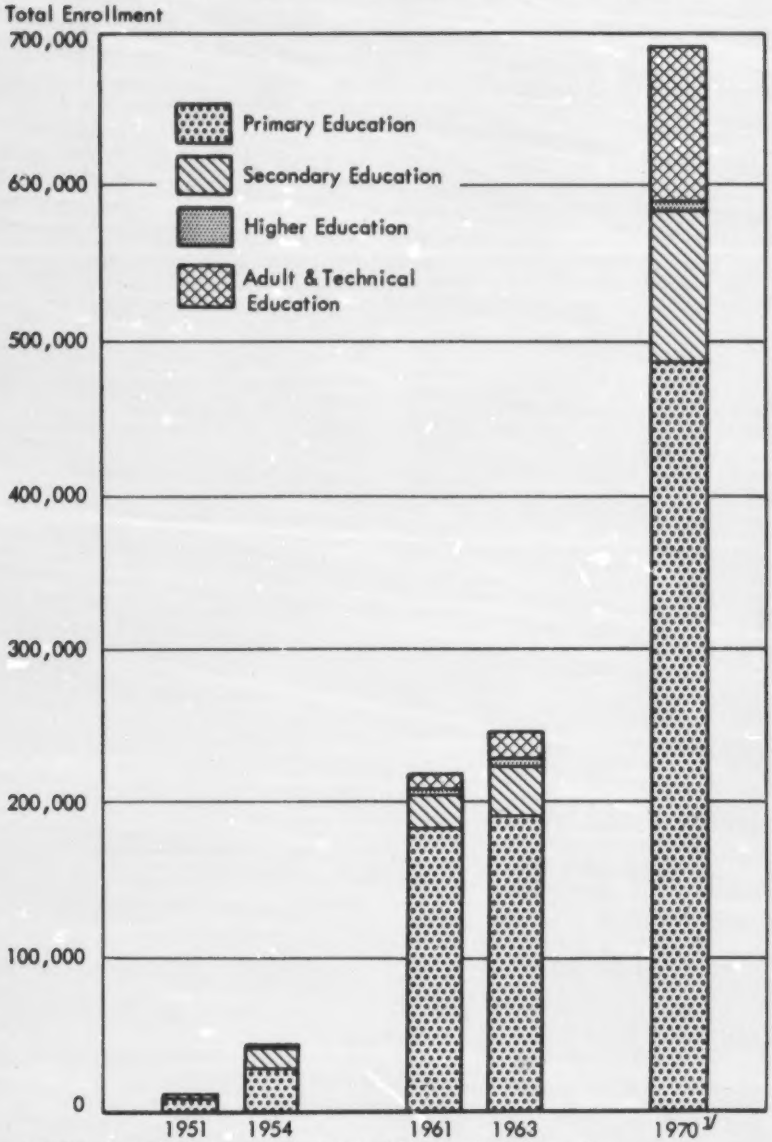
Name and location	Year founded	Type	Number of staff members	Number of students
(East Nepal)				
Mahendra Degree College, Dharan	1955	L.A., Com. Degree	14	107
Dhankuta Degree College, Dhankuta	1955	L.A. Degree	7	36
Morang College, Biratnagar	1956	L.A., Sc., Com. Degree	26	206
Janakpur Degree College, Janakpur	1958	L.A. Degree	7	141
Sanskrit College, Dharan	.....	Sansk. Degree	19	168
Bhola Intermediate College, Chainpur	1960	L.A. Degree	4	22
Mahendra Ratna College, Illam	1960	L.A. Degree	4	26
(West Nepal)				
Mahendra Bindeswari College, Rajbiraj	1957	L.A., Sc. Degree	8	74
Tribhuvan Degree College, Tansen	1958	L.A. Degree	10	55
Shri MBB Shah College, Ghorahi (Dang)	1959	L.A. Degree	6	6
Sanskrit College, Dang	.....	Sansk. Degree	.....	.....
Prithivi Narayan Intermediate College, Pokhara	1960	L.A., Intermediate	5	26
Narayan Intermediate College, Nepalgunj	.....	L.A., Sc., Intermediate	12	90
Kapil Bastu Intermediate College, Taulihawa	.....	L.A. Intermediate	.....	.....
Chuhan Hill Intermediate Coilege, Chuhandada (West No. 3)	.....	L.A. Intermediate	.....	.....
(Central Nepal)				
Thakur Ram Degree College, Birgunj	1952	L.A. Degree	13	85
TOTAL			[2] 417	[2] 5,143

[1] Based on 1961 Committee Report. Kathmandu: Ministry of Education—unpublished, p. 35-36; corrected from revised data submitted by institutions. Blanks indicate data not available.

[2] Incomplete totals.

Appendix B

Chart II. Enrollment in Educational Programs in Nepal



[1] Projected enrollments as recommended in Wood and Knall, op. cit.

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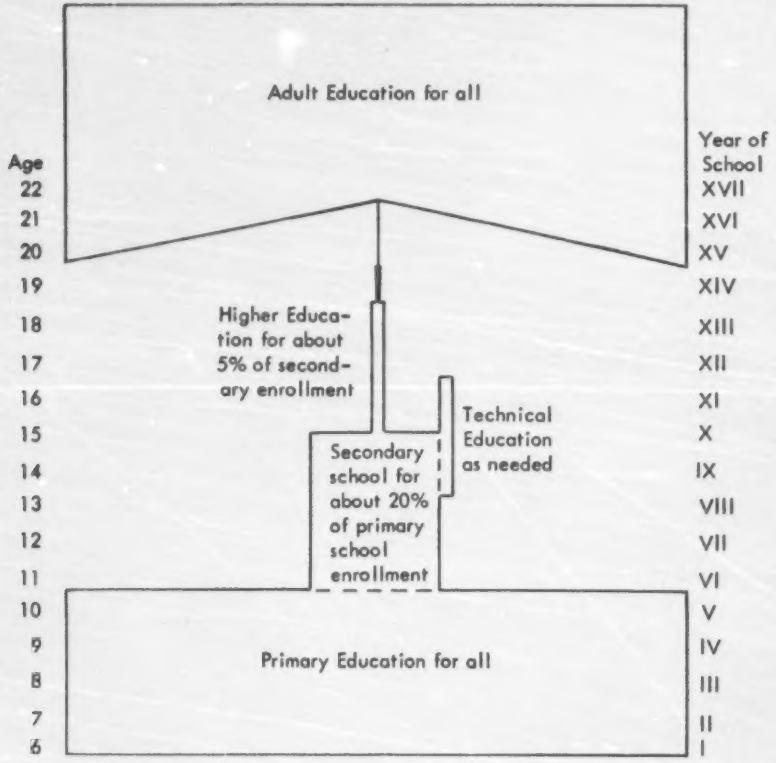
Appendix C

Chart III. Proposed Educational Pyramid for Nepal



[1] Adapted from Pandey, Bahadur, and Wood, op. cit., p. 83.

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